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We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications: and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

Peace was made at Portsmouth on Tuesday. It is significant that this formal signing of the peace between Russia and Japan practically synchronises with the formal signing of the new treaty of alliance between Japan and Great Britain: thus Japanese statesmanship has something with which to soothe the ruffled feelings of the wiser section of the Japanese public. We cannot share the benign view of those who put it that Japan dropped the indemnity and ended the war through a policy of humaneness. Qualities of head rather than heart rule in negotiation of this kind between great nations. Japan's peace motives would not have had any more of this alleged humanity about them, even if she had seen her way a few years ago to adopt any of the religions which her representatives inquired into. Not a bit of it. Both sides have agreed to end this war for their own purposes. Peace is not necessarily more moral or cosmopolitan in motive than war.

"The moving finger writes and having writ moves on." We can no more stop or guide its writing than could the wild man whose relics we look for in the drift of another geological period than ours. What is still more humiliating, practically we can no more tell what it is going to write even to-morrow than could that cave-dweller. A short time since, and nobody in the world, not Foreign Secretary or Prime Minister or Emperor, knew that Japan and Russia would at the present time be making this peace, and that America would be go-between. In truth there is no science of history. Conceive a man more learned than Freeman in history, greater in science than Darwin, deeper versed in human character than George Eliot—yet he could not even roughly draw the map of Europe as it may be a little time hence. The heap of letters which God put in the hand of his empire-builder, bidding him "make with them what word he could", are still in constant disarray.

Newspaper correspondents are still writing the inner secrets of the negotiations. According to them it was the Tsar who, wishing to continue the war, insisted

against the indemnity, which M. Witte was prepared to pay, and that the chagrin in S. Petersburg was great when the Japanese accepted the Tsar's "demands". In Russia, as in Japan, there are mixed feelings, naturally enough, on the terms of peace. In Japan an effervescent section of the people has shown itself more warlike than the Government, and there have been serious scenes at Tokio—exaggerating no doubt the more reasoned criticisms of some of the Japanese newspapers and public men. But there was never a peace concluded where the victorious party did not think it had exacted too little, and the less successful party did not think it had ceded too much, and where somebody was not blamed. If the belligerents in this case are dissatisfied, other nations do not share their feelings. Mr. Roosevelt's telegram to the German Emperor even clears up an ambiguous point in his quarter. The Emperor Francis Joseph assures the Tsar that the conditions "sauvegardent intacts l'honneur et le prestige de ton empire": the Mikado he congratulates on conditions which "constituent un bel exemple de modération, qui fait honneur au Japon". Nothing better could be thought or said in the circumstances.

A racial feud between the Tartars and the Armenians has led to anarchy in the Caucasus, and the Russian troops despatched to restore order have clearly a hard task. How the affair was allowed to develop to its present proportions is difficult to understand. Possibly Russia had withdrawn some part of her forces, and the rival nationalities thought they were at liberty to fly at each other's throats as they did in the days before Russia introduced some measure of civilisation. There does not appear to be any real ground for the suggestion that the trouble is part of the internal disorder of Russia. Whatever the explanation, the effect is certain. Serious damage has been done to property in Baku, and several hundred oil wells have been destroyed by fire. The loss will fall not only on Russian industry but on British shareholders who have largely financed the Baku oil companies.

The Shah's visit to S. Petersburg and his negotiations with the Government of the Tsar are a matter of some significance and the results will need careful watching. It has been predicted that a set-back of Russia in the furthest East would turn her to the line of less resistance leading through Persia to the Gulf and to the Indian frontier. The report of further loans accompanied by a fresh commercial treaty and new

railway concessions to the exclusion of other foreigners gives some shape to these forebodings. The last commercial treaty might surely have been enough to enable Russia to carry on her policy of "commercial occupation" and "peaceful penetration". She must evidently wish to hasten progress to the final stage of "painless identification". Foreigners are already heavily handicapped by a tariff which illustrates the futility of a "most favoured nation" clause, while the stipulations concerning railway construction place Russia in a position of priority if not actual effective control. The arrangements now being elaborated may be the Muscovite answer to the Anglo-Japanese treaty.

Moorish affairs have been simplified by the surrender at the last moment of the Maghzen to French demands. Apology has been made for the arrest of the French Algerian, Bu Mzian, the guilty Kaid has been punished and an indemnity has been paid to the victim. Germany, as was to be anticipated, had no intention of putting herself in so false a position as would be involved in the supporting of the Sultan against the general feeling of Europe. Count von Tattenbach strongly advised the Maghzen to yield. It would not be to the interest of Germany that France should invade Morocco with right on her side and occupy a commanding position before the conference meets. Nothing tells so strongly in Oriental affairs as the fait accompli. The Sultan endeavoured to pacify M. Taillandier by ingeniously contrived half-measures of satisfaction, but French diplomacy would not recklessly abandon the favourable ground that fortune once more placed beneath its feet.

Dr. Rosen, who is to supersede Count von Tattenbach at Tangier, has been paying a diplomatic visit to Paris en route. This is all to the good, for the susceptibilities of Frenchmen have undoubtedly been aroused of late, the impression having gained ground that Germany was intriguing behind their back and preparing surprises. If the French Government had invaded Morocco by land there is little doubt that the international situation would have become serious. It is argued in Paris that little profit will be left to France if all she is permitted is to police the Algerian frontier. The tribes in that region are the wildest and the country the poorest in the Moorish Empire. What profit then could France receive from so thankless a task? The conclusion of peace in the Far East has eased the situation in Western Europe, where the strain was becoming considerable, and Dr. Rosen's mission may still further smooth the path of the Conference.

The British Fleet on Tuesday afternoon left the roadstead of Neufährwasser in the Gulf of Dantzic on its way to Copenhagen. English visitors to Stettin or Dantzic have undoubtedly regarded with some suspicion the absolute correctness with which the German officials have received and entertained their visitors. That was a natural feeling in view of the previous incidents and discussion, and the attitude of some of the German papers when the visit was in contemplation. English newspapers had predicted that the fleet would not be welcomed. Captain Anson referred to this at the municipal entertainment to the British sailors; and he observed that they found they knew the German people better than the newspapers did. We shall all write, he said, to our friends, and tell them of the most cordial welcome we have received first at Swinemünde and now again at Dantzic. This may not affect la haute politique in the slightest, nor be any reason for altering one's views as to the ambitions of Germany and the reasonableness of British suspicions but there is no need for perversely glooming over the supposed lukewarm hospitalities of Stettin and Dantzic, so far as they go, unless a British sailor has concealed his real thoughts as elaborately as Metternich.

Of more practical importance to India than altercations in high places is the threatened failure of the crops over certain considerable areas. For some time past the reports have been unsatisfactory. The monsoon rains were late developing and have proved irregular

in their distribution. At one time a large part of the country seemed to be in danger, but the area is now fairly well defined. It is limited to the north-western parts lying in Rajputana, Central India, the S.E. Panjab and some districts about Agra. These have always been precarious tracts, being of a more or less arid character, poorly protected by irrigation and largely dependent on the natural rainfall. A considerable part lies in native territory. The conditions in Madras were at one time ominous, but the deficiency there seems less than there was reason to fear. The failure in the N.W. is very inopportune, coming at the time of the Prince's visit. The programme of his tour includes a great concentration of troops a little south of Delhi, and it seems probable that the want of forage and water may compel its abandonment. Outside the threatened tracts the conditions are satisfactory. The necessary measures will of course be taken to meet local scarcity, but it would be premature to anticipate a famine from the failure of a single harvest in a circumscribed area.

Chinese desertions on the Rand appear to have been much more numerous than was at first supposed. All told they amount to between five and six hundred, more than half of which have been accounted for by the police drives. As over forty-six thousand coolies have been imported the desertions are in the proportion of rather more than one per cent. It is easy to exaggerate the significance of the trouble, but as the majority of the deserters, according to Sir George Farrar, are newcomers, it is obviously ridiculous to trace their action to the alleged cruelties inflicted on them in the mines. General Botha and his friends of the Het Volk have suggested that all the Chinese should be sent back to their homes, but this, as Sir Arthur Lawley points out, would only aggravate South African troubles. If it be true that the African native is beginning to return to work in considerable numbers, labour difficulties will right themselves automatically in process of time. Sir George Farrar has drawn attention to the enormous increase in the quantity of opium imported recently. For this the Chinese are no doubt responsible. Here again the authorities are taking prompt measures, but unfortunately these things play into the hands of the agitators.

So much harm has already been done to Australian interests by the Immigration Restriction Act that Mr. Deakin's intention to amend it is not surprising. It was passed in response to the cry of "Australia for the Australians" and to please the extremists in the Labour party. Its effect has been to keep out population at the very time when it was badly needed if Australia was to take full advantage of the disappearance of the drought. The fact that Mr. Watson, the Labour leader, will agree to the modification of the Act, provided strikers are safeguarded against the importation of men who by supplanting them would render defeat certain, is the most conclusive proof of the necessity for some change. The Act has been bad for Australia and irritating from an imperial point of view. Something it is hoped will also be done to modify the law as it affects Asiatics, so that the stigma attaching to the exclusion not only of the Japanese our allies but British Indians our fellow subjects may be removed.

Little is doing in party politics, but what there is suggests that a general election at an early date is in the thoughts or fears of M.P.'s. Particularly, county members, who are standing again, are announcing themselves for luncheons and public speeches during the next few weeks. Our member's wife sits in her open carriage wreathed in smiles for passers by—chancing whether they are constituents or not—whilst our member is at the village schoolmaster's house or the village shop or rectory, enquiring about any "new people" with votes in the district. The smile may grow a little weary, like the royal bow as the day wears on, but it must be kept up. Then the pasteboard left at the new constituents' houses, even at some of the villas or cottages, this wins—at least keeps—a good many votes. Lord Acton, whose knowledge of such arts was only equalled by his knowledge

of history, urged Miss Mary Gladstone to remember pasteboard on behalf of her father. But the interest our member takes in local sports is perhaps best of all. In the long run it goes down with many rustic constituencies better than the Imperial wares.

Mr. Asquith has been the solitary speaker of importance on political subjects during the past week. His speech at Abercainey should still further enhance Mr. Balfour's good opinion of him. He expressed something like cordial approval of the foreign policy of the Government. The Prime Minister's liking for Mr. Asquith's way in politics is rather puzzling. It would be hard to imagine cultivators of styles more dissimilar than theirs. Mr. Asquith wields a broadsword with both hands: it is as ponderous a weapon as Mr. Chaplin's or Sir Henry Fowler's, though it has of course the advantage of both these in being sharp. It is swordsmanship without question that appeals to a great, not specially imaginative, section of the public. Like Lady Jane in "Patience" it is massive rather than beautiful. But one may be excused for preferring now and then swordsmanship a little quicker and brighter, more like Serjeant Troy's display.

Making up the next Liberal Government is an amusement that has begun to pall on most of us. Over and over again the same names have been connected with this office and that. One has heard, indeed how many times has one not heard it, that Mr. Lloyd-George is bound to be in the Cabinet, that Mr. Asquith may after all decide on the Lord Chancellorship. It is stale. But a quite insistent rumour now in circulation that Lord Portsmouth is sure to be in the Cabinet is at any rate fresh. Your tantaliser asks you to guess the post—you run through several—give it up—are then told that he will be Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. One is reminded of Mr. and Mrs. Gladstone: how once putting together a ministry they could not make the parts of the puzzle quite fit. There was one bit that long defied their efforts. At last they gave it up and went to bed. In the morning when they awoke the difficulty melted away: each bit was in its proper place. They might not have found it so easily solved if Lord Portsmouth had been the problem.

The literary touch of the French journalist, his superiority generally to the British breed, is proverbial. He is a finer animal, we all say so. But despite l'entente cordiale—by which name by the way the private soldier and the man in the street are now accustomed to describe French travellers in England, indeed foreigners generally—some of the best informed and most observant of French writers do not show real intimacy in writing of our public men and politics. They seem constitutionally unable to refer to a British Prime Minister or high official without making a peer of him. Monsieur Jean d'Albignac for instance, in his interesting article in "L'Actualité" on the understanding between the two countries, will ennoble the Prime Minister. It is always Lord Balfour. But perhaps it is instinct of exquisite courtesy, rather than ignorance of the facts, that induces the French writer to give our public men these titles.

Other motives are at work when the Berlin journalists turn the bald "you" which Mr. Roosevelt uses in his message to the German Emperor into "your Majesty". Here the British instinct is very like the German. True, it is not actually lèse-majesté with us to call the King the King but there is sub-editorial and other tradition against it. "His Majesty", "their Serene Highnesses", "Your Grace", even "My Lady", these and the like come so slick to the lip or pen. In Berlin by the way Mr. Roosevelt's "simple pronoun" is apparently being taken quite anxiously: in the communications to the official press it had to be altered. It is not King or Kaiser as a rule who takes such trifles to heart, but the professional ceremonialists that fence the throne about. It is pleasant to recall that Prussian Princess who used to take a pinch of snuff as a mark of her disdain for such things, which she regarded as flummeries.

Lord Rosebery opened certain public buildings at Stornoway on Thursday, amongst them one of Mr. Carnegie's libraries. He seems to himself sometimes, he says, to have been doing nothing else all his life. But at any rate it has been part of his training in the art of saying nothing gracefully. Painful process it may have been, but yet not so painful as the training for oratory which it seems at one period the Lews orator had to go in for. He shut himself in a dark room, wrapped a plaid round him, lay on his back, and placed a large stone on the pit of his stomach. After about from twelve to twenty-four hours of this he was ready for his speech. Lord Rosebery would never go through so much, but it would not be bad to impose it as a rule on all speakers at Mr. Carnegie's library openings.

The Trade Union Congress has been sitting at Hanley in Staffordshire since Monday; and on Tuesday its President Mr. J. Sexton delivered his address. It consisted of carping criticism of most of the Government legislation of the past year such as the Unemployed and the Aliens Acts, and of its dealing with the Chinese labour question in South Africa and the Trades Disputes and the Workmen's Compensation Bills. So far this is very satisfactory to the Liberals, and one might think Mr. Sexton was equally well satisfied with them, but this is by no means so. He is very dissatisfied with them, and though he believes that "a worse Government than the present they could not possibly get" it is evident he thinks the next Liberal Government is not likely to be much better. What he means is that unless the Independent Labour party can make itself powerful at the next election the official Liberals are not more likely to please him with Labour questions than the present Government. He sees that they really are unsympathetic, and if they supported the Trades Disputes Bill, which would restore trade unionism to its position before the Taff Vale case, it is because they are afraid of the Labour vote. Liberal newspapers complain of Mr. Sexton's speech as if he were wanting in gratitude, but the plain fact is he does not admit that he owes any gratitude to liberalism.

Why should he from his and his party's point of view? If the Liberals did support the Unemployed Bill he gives all the credit of the bill to the Independent Labour party. And besides he says that orthodox politics have never yet produced a statesman who will deal with the question as it ought to be dealt with. There is in his opinion but one way to solve it and that is the "abolition of private monopoly in the land". The Congress carried a resolution that the Labour group in Parliament should introduce a bill nationalising all railroads, canals, mines and minerals in the United Kingdom. This is not the kind of thing for which Mr. Sexton expects much whole-hearted support from the Liberal party, and his deduction from it all is to return as powerful an Independent Labour party as is possible in the next Parliament, which will be inclined to treat the Liberals with as little favour as it will the Conservatives. But we are not to expect consistency. Some members of the Congress showed that in the fiscal controversy the Conservative party is more in line with Labour ideas than the Liberals; but they were listened to very impatiently, and in the end a large vote was given against any alteration of the present trade system.

Sir John Gorst spoke at one of the meetings held in connexion with the Congress on the subject of the State's duty in regard to national health. We are all familiar enough by this time with many of his facts about infant mortality and the ill-nourishment of children amongst large classes of the population. They are extremely serious but probably we are not threatened with deterioration owing to modern conditions more than other nations are. There is a lack of determination on our part however in instituting suitable means for counteracting the evils. In regard to housing for instance; in Germany where housing conditions are becoming very much the same in large towns as they are here the State is doing much more in many ways by loans, and by building and owning houses itself, to supply the deficiencies; and it has recently introduced legislation which shows clearly

that it regards it as one of its most important functions to deal with the evils of deficient and insanitary housing.

The resolution supported by Sir John Gorst affirmed the need of hospitals and dispensaries being publicly supported and free advice being given which shall not be associated with poor law administration. This proposal has of course caused alarm to some people but here again we may point to the example of Germany where the hospitals belong to the municipality and are not kept up by charity and where all rich or poor have the right to go. Infection is spread and infantile mortality especially increased here because poor parents are prevented from seeking medical advice from the poor law authorities who often only grant medical aid on condition of the parents accepting it as a loan. We save a little in poor law administration and lose a great deal by measures that have to be taken by the health authorities in consequence of neglect.

An interesting report of three representatives of Birmingham brassworkers, who recently visited Berlin to inquire whether the brass-workers there are better off than they are here, has a close connexion with this subject. They compare the Birmingham school children very unfavourably with those of Berlin, where if the parents are poor clothes and boots are provided for their children by the municipal poor guardians and charitable societies. The visitors have no hesitation in concluding that on the whole the workmen of their trade in Berlin are better off than they are in Birmingham; their wages somewhat higher and the purchasing power of money greater. They are better nourished and work more easily and have a better time than workmen in Birmingham. They attach great importance to the superior housewifery of the German housekeeper, and they point out how in so many ways the requirements of military service improve the physique and the bearing and the general intelligence of the people. Without speaking of free trade, they simply remark that they find cheap food is not the only important consideration in a nation's welfare, but that the intelligence and self-restraint with which it is used may be of even greater importance.

Whatever may be the state of business at home, the Board of Trade returns continue to show expansion which is at least encouraging to the opponent of tariff reform. Imports during August increased in value by nearly £4,500,000 and exports of home produce and manufactures by over £3,000,000. For the eight months of the year the figures are still better: they show an increase of £9,376,000 in imports and of £17,784,000 exports. In several directions, particularly iron and steel, there are at last signs of trade recovery. India accounts to a considerable extent for the improvement. The free trader is of course asking what Mr. Chamberlain and his friends have to say now. It is a little amusing that his critics, who were so keen recently to explain that it is good business for a country to have an increasing excess of imports, now proclaim prosperity from the housetops when exports are moving up more rapidly than imports.

The generous gift of Mr. E. G. Bawden which was announced on Monday by a letter from Mr. Edgar Speyer is one of the most commendable of its kind. In consultation with Mr. Speyer he has arranged that a sum of £100,000 shall be vested in trustees in various amounts for the benefit of thirty-four separate objects which are classified as funds for the advancement of knowledge, for emigration, for hospitals, for holidays for the poor and for convalescent and other homes. The largest sum is £16,000 to complete £200,000 needed for incorporating University College in the University of London. Some £30,000 is devoted to London hospitals; various holiday funds are endowed with £14,000; convalescent homes with £10,000; institutions such as Dr. Barnardo's Homes also receive £10,000. These are unexceptionable objects; but the Charity Organisation Society is somewhat flattered as a society for research in obtaining £3,000; and £10,000 devoted to emigration abroad makes one wish that at least an equal sum were applied for settling useful immigrants in some parts of our own country.

THE PEACE AND ITS COROLLARIES.

WHEN Goethe at Valmy saw the raw recruits of the Revolution repulsing for the first time Brunswick's veteran troops he said to those around him, "From to-day begins a new era in the history of Europe". From 5 September, 1905, a sagacious observer might perhaps have dated a new era in the history of the world. At all events it is a fact that for the first time for many centuries a European Power recognised on that occasion that it had been decisively worsted by an Asiatic antagonist. This is in itself epoch-making, but we do not feel at all sure that it will manifest its effects quite so rapidly or in so startling a fashion as it has been predicted. We must confess that a study of the prophecies of history does not encourage the wary to launch further ventures to share the fate of the failures of the past. The fortunate forecasts of great political events have been so few that they stand distinguished for all time to admire. We all know what Lord Chesterfield and Arthur Young said about an approaching revolution in France, and they will always receive more than the credit they deserve for those extremely lucky forecasts; but we have on the other side the terrible example of recent prophets to set against them. Hardly one of the Far Eastern experts predicted the outcome of Japanese counsels aright in this matter of peacemaking. They formed their views on what they knew of the national character, and did not allow for the extraordinary sense of Western opinion that has enabled the Japanese at once to acquire more than all they fought for, and at the same time to disarm the hostility and allay the jealousy of rival nations. The whole course of their action indicates such remarkable astuteness and capacity for estimating probabilities that it is no less remarkable than their exact reckoning in the operations of war. Neither their friends nor their critics have sufficiently estimated the risks run by Japanese statesmen in deciding as they did, and we have yet to learn whether the individuals who have been more directly responsible for the result may not suffer from the fanaticism of the more old-fashioned or nationalist politicians whose prejudices they have wisely ignored.

One thing is certain, the "yellow peril" will be an ineffectual scarecrow for some time to come and this for two reasons. In the first place the self-restraint of the Japanese themselves makes any appeal of this kind but little agitating to European nerves; and the picture of conquering hordes sweeping over our cherished civilisation has no meaning at present in its original sense. In the second place the announcement of the new Anglo-Japanese Treaty is itself regarded rather as a prop and guarantee of peace than as a menace of new political convulsions. It is an accepted axiom in France at all events that our influence with our ally has been used for peace, and that it will be so used for the future; and the general sense of Europe is that the new Asiatic avatar will not be a revelation of barbarous tribes issuing forth to sweep away the treasures of civilisation but some revolution of Asiatic external relations and conditions which will tend not to extinguish but to rival the material developments of the European peoples. Predictions as to the outcome of the Japanese enterprise against Russia have been nearly all falsified by the event as the dangers of our original alliance with her were overrated. It would therefore be a gratuitous indiscretion to forecast the policy of Japan many years ahead, but it is quite obvious that her influence in China will more than supersede that of Russia. The work of penetration that she has begun in that country will be continued with force increased a hundred-fold by the prestige of her victories and Japanese trade will multiply in every direction the victories it has already won. The Japanese, having already taught themselves to manufacture the coarser products of India and oust the imports of Bombay will soon also emancipate their own markets from all dependence on Lancashire. We shall then see a desperate struggle waged for the markets of China and we shall count ourselves lucky if in thirty years' time we hold any part of the field, as may also the United States and Germany. Propinquity and a knowledge of a neighbour's wants will prove as useful to

Japan in supplying China as they do to the United States in catering for Canada. The United States themselves are already learning the dangers of the Chinese idea fostered for trade purposes. The days have almost arrived, if they are not already upon us, when the forcing of an obnoxious trade down the throat of the yellow man will become an impossibility.

Japan with Korea and Manchuria to penetrate peacefully and with her conquests guaranteed by Great Britain, is no menace to Germany at Kiao Chow or to America in the Philippines. What danger there is is not political. Until the terms of our new alliance are revealed it would be futile to speculate upon them but undoubtedly we shall use our influence with Japan to secure a liberal interpretation of the terms of the Treaty of Portsmouth. It is a truism to say that this treaty is merely a truce unless each Power puts the utmost goodwill into its execution but that is so with all Peace Treaties; no one has a right to speculate on either signatory assuming any other than a highly correct attitude.

We do not believe however that it will be possible for an immediate change in the European situation to follow on the peace. Germany still retains a preponderating influence; and Russia is not ready to throw her weight into the scales within a week of signing a peace by which she is not indeed humiliated but is undoubtedly wrenched away from the course she was pursuing. She has yet to make up her mind whether she will return to her earlier policy of active advance in the Near East or push her aims more vigorously in the direction of the Persian Gulf or endeavour to re-instate herself on the Pacific. Until she shows some indication of the ultimate tendency of her designs we may reason much but in vain. There is nothing in the nature of the peace arrangement itself to prevent a free and frank understanding between Russia and Japan. We all know the system of reinsurance adopted by Bismarck with Russia of which he made no small boast and it may be that Russia herself may apply this example to her own case to-day. We are not exempt from all obligations for vigilance even if Japan to a certain extent has freed us from pressing anxiety and becomes partially responsible for the defence of the Indian frontier; in fact our vigilance should be but the greater.

After all the only legitimate satisfaction, from the point of view of our own policy, to be gathered from our ally's success is that we may be the more free thereby to make our influence effectually felt on the side of European peace. It is a small thing that we may feel safer from Russian aggression on the Indian frontier if that merely means that we hope to have to spend less money or run less personal risk in defending some portion of our Empire. If the fact that we believe India to be more secure than it has been is to be merely a soporific, then so far as we are concerned as a nation we have reaped little benefit from Japanese victories. The European horizon is by no means clear of clouds, and the more intelligent Frenchmen at the present moment are still apprehensive though the popular scare may be past. It is still possible that a situation might arise, in fact it would be true to say that at any time situations may arise, when it would be highly desirable in the interests of European peace that England should be able to land a comparatively small but efficient army of her own on the Continent of Europe. The possibility of our being able to supply such a force to any ally would be a very strong factor in preventing war at all. But the return of Russia to the European arena is to be desired for more reasons than one, for the establishment of peace in the Far East may mean also the prevention of war nearer home.

THE MILITARY LESSONS OF THE WAR.

THE ending of the war was essentially modern. So was its conduct by the Japanese, and it is from its incidents that our notions as regards war in the future will undoubtedly be derived. Never have such numbers been in collision on a battlefield. Never have all the resources of science been so lavishly placed at

the disposal of both combatants, and never have the whole forces, naval and military, of two rival nations held the world spellbound at one and the same moment. That an Asiatic race should have decisively defeated a great European Power is of course a startling event, but when it is remembered that it did so not by pitting Eastern armaments and tactics against the civilised West, but by turning the science of the latter against itself, the result strikes us as less extraordinary. It was English tuition and training that gave Japan superiority on the waves. It was to the German models which they copied that their success on shore is largely due. And, since all nations, including Russia, have imitated German military methods from 1870 onwards, we need not go far to seek for an explanation of the meagre supply of tactical novelties which the war has furnished. Not however that any explanation will be called for by those who have given any consideration to the main causes that produced success or failure in former campaigns. It was discipline and strategical insight rather than iron ramrods that made Prussia formidable under Frederick. It was again strategical and tactical skill rather than any superiority in armament that made Napoleon master of Europe. Breechloaders in popular imagination gave victory to Prussia in 1866, but even had the brave Austrians wielded weapons more deadly than muzzle-loaders there can be little doubt that they would have been defeated. They were out-generalled, and their leaders had not studied war to the same advantage as had their opponents. Though the muzzle-loaders made it a certainty defeat was probable in any case. The other day in South Africa we heard much as to the mauser being better than the rifle we gave our soldiers. Correspondents split hairs over the relative merits of pouches and bandoliers, of particular attack formations, or of systems of musketry instruction. But broadly speaking these matters were trifles. Our mistakes, which cost us so many millions, were those of statesmanship, of organisation, of higher leadership, culminating in a lack of a sound military spirit throughout our army. As a matter of fact the Japanese were in what may be termed material assets less richly endowed than those they opposed. They certainly had an inferior gun, and were far weaker in cavalry. All but invariably too they had to attack an opponent on ground of his own choosing, and strongly prepared for defence. Only the war with China had given them practical experience with large bodies of troops, while their opponents had been the victors in a great European war fought less than thirty years ago, and had been fighting in Central Asia many times since then. In actual animal courage there was nothing to choose between the Russian and the Japanese. It had been asserted by every tactician in Europe that modern experience of war had shown that to turn an enemy out of an entrenched position the attack must be in a preponderance of three, four, or some said, six to one. Yet the Russians were forced to evacuate line after line of so-called impregnable strongholds, and the pressure of numbers upon them never approached the dimensions indicated above. Why then did Japan so completely sweep the board? The reason we are prepared to give is simple enough, and when we state it we only reiterate a stale commonplace proved true in every war from the time of Hannibal to the present. The first postulate of military success is that a warlike spirit and singleness of purpose animate the Government that levies war. Neither strategy nor tactics nor iron ramrods nerved his officers and men to strenuous endeavour as did the military instinct of the army produced by the example and encouragement of "Fritz" himself. It was moral and not material means that Napoleon more especially relied on. It is true he appealed to impulses other than those which we admire most—plunder and personal glory came after patriotism and a sense of duty—but he knew his men and his nation and how best to excite the passion that must carry his plans through. And thus he and the great king—heads of their respective peoples—were enabled to combine policy and enthusiasm in the rank and file, and strategy all in one. Unity of purpose created and stored the energy which gave impulse to the war. The result

was the success which singleness of aim and inflexible determination achieve in every one of the affairs of men. Germany enters on her struggles of '66 and '70 in the same spirit. She sees war coming, or deliberately plans it; she prepares to meet it with no illusions as to half-measures or compromises. She trains her armies and officers and men to be ready for it, to act in one spirit when it comes and she shatters her foes who are less clear-sighted, less prepared, and, in the case of the French at any rate, less schooled to sacrifice personal feelings and prejudices to the common good. Statesmen and soldiers must mean the same thing, see eye to eye when the trumpet sounds. That is the first great lesson which this war has taught us, though a thousand other wars have dinned the truth into our ears. But the spirit that can make politicians forget party, and unite in supporting the interests of the State can be carried further than the bureau. The man in the ranks can be taught to catch the spirit of his rulers. He is to forget fear and throw himself soul as well as body to the fates. Religion, fame, plunder, will all nerve a man to contempt of death. Fanatics, adventurers, pirates have on occasions shown such courage as left nothing to choose between them as fighting men. It has been reserved for the Japanese to make patriotism a still mightier lever to raise men above themselves, and to graft a Roman virtue on our latter-day civilisation.

What makes the Japanese army probably the most formidable in the world to-day is its spirit. The spirit which animates her ruler, statesmen, generals and private soldiers, and makes them see only the way to the hostile army, and urges them onward upon it. In the presence of such a mighty agency towards victory minor expedients sink into insignificance. Our faith in the tactical formations which our troops adopted when attacking the kopjes in South Africa may have been shaken by the experiences that have been reaped in Manchuria. But this had already been foreseen by many of our own leaders, while foreign authorities paid but little attention to our latest innovations. We were taught to spread out into attenuated lines so that we might avoid losses. It was rather to carry out this precaution than decisively to defeat our opponents that the efforts of our highest leader were directed. Foreign observers did not hesitate to point out that if we were ever engaged with opponents numerous and determined enough to deliver a counter-attack we could not with safety meet them in the way we met the Boers. Both the Japanese and the Russians have fought according to continental and not English ideas, and he will be a bold man who, in the face of the intelligence and readiness of the former to adopt valuable suggestions, will contend that any other methods but those they utilised would have been equally successful. It shows that artillery has grown in importance in a ratio greater than any other arm, and the handling of his artillery will become a far more difficult and important task to a commander than ever it has been before. As to cavalry, it cannot be said that the arm has added to its laurels in this war any more than it did in South Africa. But we have been shown much that was both instructive in itself and suggestive of possible improvements with regard to what may be termed the adjuncts of modern armies. Telegraphs and telephones, the use of intrenching tools, ambulances, and supply wagons we may be sure have been eagerly watched and studied by the military attachés. On such matters—tactical and administrative—as we have touched upon many pages might, and no doubt will be, written. But here and now we can only deal with broad features and large principles, and these things come under neither category. The great feature of the war has been the huge masses engaged. Leipzig itself in this respect compares poorly with Mukden. The hosts of 1812 were not so numerous as those that invaded Manchuria, and Borodino may outrival Liao-yang in horrors but not in the numbers of guns or men that fought. Yet it is surely remarkable that after an unbroken record of defeat on such a huge scale the Russians still can show an army fully equipped and organised in position. Liao-yang and Mukden were truly enough to break the spirit and dissolve the ranks of the stoutest troops in

the world. In spite of the list of killed and wounded, of the prisoners, of the guns and trophies the war could still have been carried on. Yet Marengo a mere skirmish in comparison to these battles of giants decided the fate of a nation. Jena laid a kingdom in the dust. Even Friedland compelled a Tsar to come to terms. What is it that made Mukden indecisive, and could allow the Tsar still to dream of victory when for a year and a half not a gleam of success had shone for a moment on his bayonets? The terrain in which the battles were fought had of course much to do with it, but the very vastness of the armies had more. An army of several hundreds of thousands cannot be moved like one of a third the size. The telegraph may do much but it cannot annihilate space where movements of men are concerned, and to pursue a beaten foe requires prompt action and energy which are only possible where events take place under the eye and within the direction of a supreme leader.

AMERICA AND THE CHINESE.

THE United States have always appeared so especially friendly to China, and Art. V. of the American treaty of 1868 recognises "the inherent and inalienable right of man to change his home and allegiance, and the mutual advantage of free emigration of citizens and subjects respectively from one country to the other", in such peculiarly exalted terms that there is something humorous in the Chinese banding themselves together to boycott American commerce and everything savouring of America, on the ground of maltreatment by American officials of Chinese desiring to visit the United States. But we must guard at once against an unfair impression; for the justice of the Chinese complaint seems to be admitted and deplored by the majority of thinking Americans almost as keenly as by the Chinese themselves. So long ago as last May, for instance—as soon as it became known that negotiations for a new Immigration Treaty had fallen through, and before a boycott had been even threatened—we find the *Journal of the American Asiatic Association* condemning the nature and origin of the influences at work. "The President (it affirmed, apparently with knowledge) was more than disposed to meet the Chinese Minister half way in his demand that there should be an end to the humiliating and insulting ordeal to which the higher classes of Chinese were subjected on landing at an American port. The Secretary of State was equally well disposed to liberalise the present restrictions; and it was credibly reported that the head of the Bureau of Corporations in the Department of Commerce and Labour was endeavouring . . . in the direction of a policy of greater liberality. Stronger however than all these influences appears to have been the Trades Union fanaticism in regard to the admission of Chinamen which dominates the Bureau of Immigration . . . Under such circumstances the abandonment of the negotiation of a new treaty of immigration to take the place of that which expired last December is nothing short of a confession on the part of the Government of the United States that it cannot afford to brave the hostility of a parcel of demagogues. The only hope for securing decent treatment to Chinese merchants, students and travellers for pleasure visiting this country, appears to be for the commercial interests, which are most likely to suffer from the illiberality of the present system, to undertake a systematic agitation to compel the authorities at Washington to consult in this matter the plain dictates of common sense and justice."

This passage explains both the origin of the trouble and the attitude of the divers parties concerned. The whole thing turns on labour. Arts. VI. and VII. of the treaty we have quoted stipulate that citizens of the United States visiting or residing in China, and Chinese subjects visiting or residing in the United States, shall enjoy, reciprocally, "the same privileges, immunities and exemptions in respect to travel or residence as may be enjoyed by citizens or subjects of the most favoured nation"—excluding, only,

nationalisation—and similar (reciprocal) privileges in regard to "public educational institutions" and even the establishment of schools. A treaty negotiated in 1880 first admitted the principle of exclusion; but it was to apply only to Chinese who might go to the United States as labourers; and legislation designed to give effect to the provision was to be "of such a character only as might be necessary to enforce the regulation, limitation or suspension of immigration", a special proviso being made that immigrants should not be subject to personal maltreatment or abuse. It is charged that the existing statutes and practices violate these stipulations. The cause of complaint is not that Chinese "labourers" are excluded, but that others who retain a right to enter and whom Americans profess themselves anxious to encourage are "subjected to personal maltreatment, abuse" and humiliation of various kinds—on the plea, apparently, that they may be labourers in disguise! For the better regulation of the question another treaty was negotiated, in 1894, which the Chinese Government denounced at the earliest opportunity and which terminated accordingly in December 1904. If we ask why, the answer is, according to Mr. Kohler (ex-Assistant District Attorney, New York) to be found "in large gaps in the subsisting statutes, in the unfair and inhumanly oppressive system of administration, in the sudden resurrection of a system of arrests and deportations for non-registration in cases in which registration was never required or contemplated, and in the confusion and uncertainty in the present system of piecemeal and inconsistent enactments—errors regarding which are constantly resulting in an enormous number of deportations to China under most oppressive conditions." It seems to be charged, in fact, that the legislation passed by Congress, the regulations instituted by the Immigration Authorities, and the methods of Administration go beyond any restrictions contemplated by the treaty or the Government, and that fundamental reconstruction is required. Negotiations which had been commenced for a new treaty were abandoned some months ago on the objection of the Chinese Minister to the draft; and then promptly arose the agitation which has attained such remarkable proportions, in China, to-day.

One immediate effect of the boycott has been to rouse public feeling in America more strongly than would have been the case, probably, if the matter had remained one of abstract discussion. The export of cotton goods from the United States to China increased from 76,886,000 yards for the twelve months ended June 1904 to 474,909,000 for the twelve months ended June 1905. The export of wheat flour and mineral oils both direct to Chinese ports and indirectly through Hong-Kong is also considerable; and an influential deputation of firms interested and others presented to the President, in June, an address which elicited the following distinct pronouncement in reply. "I favour (he said) the exclusion of the coolie class of Chinese because I do not think there is any place for them in our industrial or social system; but, with equal emphasis, I am entirely opposed to any regulations which impede the coming here of Chinese merchants, students, or travellers for pleasure". How far the practice of the Department concerned is from satisfying these views may be inferred from the following cases which are quoted by the New York "Sun". Four Chinese students relatives of the Governor of Shantung arrived in Boston harbour recently, on their way home from England where they had been educated, bearing letters of introduction from Mr. Choate and having unimpeachable passports. "Nevertheless the Immigration authorities detained them on board ship for a day, photographing them for identification and making them give a bond not to go to work as labourers for starvation wages and thus take the bread out of the mouths of American citizens!" Last year, again, a Chinese Commissioner to the St. Louis fair was carried across the Canadian boundary on his way East, after he had been admitted at the port of entry. "When his train, after its excursion into foreign territory, re-entered the United States he was held up, treated roughly, and grossly insulted by the Inspectors. His efforts to explain the error complained of caused him to be treated as a criminal,

and he was kept out of jail only with the greatest difficulty." The Washington correspondent of the New York "Evening Post" affirms that the President has closely followed these and other cases, and has written a "characteristically vigorous letter" to the Department of Commerce and Labour desiring that a way may be found to stop the recurrence of such episodes. That the cases cited are not of the most irritating type may perhaps be inferred from the proceedings at a meeting of Chinese students at Foochow, where the case was cited of three former students of the College who had been detained at San Francisco for two or three months before they were admitted, and "stripping Chinese immigrants of all their clothing in making examinations or measurements" was mentioned as a practice that should be discontinued "as it is regarded as a great indignity". Action so far-reaching and decisive as to boycott all commerce with a nation having such considerable interests in China as the United States has naturally appeared serious and led to reflection as to what next may occur to the depositaries of so much power. But the Chinese are too fond of trade and its advantages to bring about a cessation recklessly or to prolong it further than may seem to them necessary to attain their end. The American Government has acted promptly; giving assurances that Chinese merchants, students and other travellers visiting America will receive courteous treatment in future, and promising to do everything in its power to amend the treaty in a manner satisfactory to the Chinese when Congress meets. And an Imperial edict has been issued in China, desiring the Provincial Authorities to issue proclamations ordering the continuation of business. It may be that these assurances will be accepted, and normal relations be resumed. It is to be hoped from every point of view that they will, because ill-feeling is apt under such circumstances to spread, and exaggerated impressions to gain ground in places and amongst people who know little of the actual facts. But it must be admitted that ordering a man to buy and sell is very much like taking a horse to the water, and that it will be difficult to make the orders effective if those concerned choose to await results.

THE DIAMOND.

A DISCOURSE on diamonds at Kimberley, the cradle of most of our modern diamonds, by Sir William Crookes, a master of popular scientific exposition, would necessarily be interesting and even fascinating. His listeners of the British Association had the advantage of previously inspecting the wonderful mines which were the inspiration of Sir William's address, but they could hardly have felt its attraction more than those of us who can only turn to the printed text. Diamonds appeal always to men and women either through the imagination or the affections; possibly more to men through the former, to women through the latter. Those who do not possess diamonds envy those who do; they are wealth or types of wealth in a particularly irritating form to those who are discontented with their allotment of the good things of life. They are paradoxical inasmuch as they set at defiance the definition by political economy of wealth as consisting of utilities. In fact if they were useful they would not be so desirable. We submit to the tyranny of the useful and labour for them because we must; but for the ornamental, for those things which are for nothing but display and ostentation, we crave because by their means we obtain distinction. When obtained with labour they are the signs of success in the eager competition for wealth; if they are ours without labour they are still more precious as the natural appendages of a position which all admire and envy. With the exception of gold, more historical, romantic and ethical associations cluster around diamonds than about any other of our material possessions; at least so far as portable wealth goes. The reported discovery of either in any country is more important for that country than almost any other economic event that could happen in it. It will set in motion a stream of emigration from other

countries more effectually than any other inducement that can be offered to emigrants. Diamonds and gold together have transformed the country in which Sir William Crookes delivered his address.

Mystery surrounds the diamond. Science can easily analyse it, as it can man himself, but in neither case can science yet proclaim their origin. There was a time when the diamond was believed to grow, and a scientific question once posed was: Suppose diamonds are dug out, do they grow again in the same places from which they were taken? We have got beyond imagining the diamond to be a kind of vegetable, but as yet there is no demonstrated theory of how as a mineral the diamond came to be what it is. There is even a hypothesis, which has much to say for itself and is not to be treated derisively, which reminds us of Lord Kelvin's famous suggestion as to the origin of life on the earth from the meteorites that have fallen upon it. Sir William Crookes' comment on this diamond theory is that, bizarre as it may appear, there are many circumstances which show that the notion of the heavens raining diamonds is not impossible. It is at any rate certain that in a large tract of land in Arizona meteorites have fallen which have been analysed and found to contain black and transparent diamonds to the astonishment of all chemists. Since then the search for diamonds has gone on not only in such deep mines as those of Kimberley but in iron masses that have fallen from the skies and lie in the plains. One naturally asks: but how in that case does it happen that we find diamonds in mines at such great depths? There have been diamonds found in the surface washings at Kimberley but now deep mining operations are necessary. There is a hint from Arizona. Near the centre of the area where most of the meteorites had been found was a crater with raised edges three-quarters of a mile in diameter and about six hundred feet deep, bearing exactly the appearance which would be produced had a mighty mass of iron struck the ground and buried itself deep under the surface. It is interesting to note that Sir William Crookes, describing the Kimberley "pipes" in which the diamonds are found, points out that they were certainly not burst through in the ordinary manner of volcanic eruption since the surrounding and enclosing walls show no signs of igneous action. The pipes were filled from below after they were pierced; and the diamonds were formed at some previous time and were then mixed up with the debris brought there by a mud volcano. This is consistent with the meteorite theory; but Sir William Crookes evidently adopts the hypothesis of the origin of diamonds beneath the earth at the spot where they are found and remarks that it is in many ways corroborated.

Temperature comparable with that of the electric furnace, pressure fiercer than anything man can apply, a melting-point consequently enormously higher, the absence of oxygen, masses of liquid carbon which took centuries, perhaps thousands of years, to cool to the solidifying point; such were the conditions under which the diamond came into being. And yet by imitating these conditions Moissan the chemist has made artificial diamonds. But they are infinitesimal; and they have a habit of exploding unexpectedly. Apart from this drawback, which would be prohibitory even to wearers less nervous than ladies, an ornament of such diamonds would be more expensive than one of natural diamonds even at present rates, and there is no likelihood that nature's diamonds will be superseded by the artificial product any more than that natural food will be by the products of the chemical laboratory. "Paste" is in another category. Sir William Crookes speaks of the reflections and refractions of the diamond as the lightnings, the effulgence, and the coruscations for which the diamond is supreme above all gems. And yet "paste" is not detected by the expert by any such superiority but by a certain tone of hardness; though doubtless there is a superficiality of lustre in paste which the expert detects. But science has now a surer test than personal skill. The Röntgen rays will infallibly distinguish imitation diamonds from true gems. Nor are we unprepared to find that the ubiquitous radium will produce transformations in the real diamond itself. After some

months' exposure to its action they assume a beautiful blue colour and their value as "fancy stones" is materially increased. The blue colour persists and penetrates beneath the surface and appears to be "fast". Then by contact with radium the diamond can be endued with radio-activity which also persists. The phosphorescence of diamonds too adds to their mystery and to the æsthetic feelings and emotions which their changing gleams produce. Sir William Crookes showed a prodigy diamond which phosphoresces in the dark for some minutes after being exposed to a small pocket electric light. If rubbed on a piece of cloth a long streak of phosphorescence appears. In a vacuum and exposed to electricity diamonds will phosphoresce rich colours; South African diamonds mostly emit a blue light. Diamonds from other localities will emit bright blue, apricot, pale blue, red, yellowish green, orange and pale green. One green diamond in Sir William Crookes' collection, when phosphorescing in a good vacuum, gives almost as good light as a candle and it is easy to read by it. Diamonds as a domestic illuminant is a fascinating idea; but it is not probable that any company in the immediate future will be registered to apply it practically. It seems already some detraction from their æsthetic value that they can be put to such practical uses as glass-cutting and rock-boring, and a further extension would be fatal. Diamond possessors and diamond lovers may hope that ere long the metal tantalum may remove the reproach of utility from the diamond. In a contest between this metal and a diamond drill revolving at the rate of five thousand revolutions per minute for three days and nights, it remained a moot point whether the diamond or the tantalum had suffered most damage. Such base uses are not fitting for the diamond. It should always be associated with poetry, romance, and beauty, as it has been from times immemorial, and not be forced into uncongenial connexion with ordinary life; at least not after it leaves Kimberley, Hatton Garden, or the jeweller's shop in Bond Street.

THE CITY.

THE increase in the Bank of England official rate to 3 per cent. did not come altogether as a surprise although the majority of bankers were of opinion that the change would not be made for a week or so. The reserve however is only £24,694,843 as compared with £25,438,087 last week and £27,507,808 for the corresponding period of last year. The drain of gold from London at this season is always considerable and the requirements of South America and Egypt promise to be greater than usual this year, whilst the immediate future is obscured by uncertainty as to the extent to which Japan will draw on her floating balances abroad. Should New York be drawn upon the operation will eventually be transferred to London, which will be also called upon to assist in moving the heavy crops from the Western States. The indications are that we shall see a very active money market, but although the period of extremely cheap money is passed we do not anticipate any marked stringency.

The Stock Exchange was rather relieved that the increase in the rate—which was inevitable sooner or later—had come, particularly as it added the finishing stroke to a reaction which had shown itself during the past few days. The broadening out of business had tempted a number of speculators to help themselves rather too freely and the set-back is a wholesome corrective to an overloaded "bull" account. The reports from the various markets are very encouraging and with the exception of the "ragged" buying to which we have alluded the dealings have been of that type which is associated with a genuine public interest. The finer gilt-edged securities have been prejudicially affected by the hardening of money rates and Consols close $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. lower on balance, but in colonial securities and certain municipal stocks there has been a very good demand. Home rails have been largely dealt in although with the exception of the northern lines the traffics are not particularly good. In colonial rails the feature has been the excellent traffic return of the Grand Trunk Railway of Canada which showed an

increase of £10,000 against a market anticipation of a decrease of £6,000: dealings have been very animated and although the preference and ordinary shares do not close at the best the underlying tone is very strong and we anticipate still higher prices. The entire list of Canadian railway securities shows substantial gains and as a large proportion of the buying is of a genuine investment character we look for the improvement to be maintained. The trend of the American railroad market has not been so clear. The last return of the Associated Banks showed a dangerously low reserve and from this influence alone we should be disposed to look for a decline from the present levels. The startling advertisements of Mr. Lawson, who with the utmost candour takes the world into his confidence as to his "bear" operations, have not been without effect, and although his pool of \$10,000,000 is ostensibly formed to support "bear" operations in copper stocks chiefly the effect of his undoubtedly clever and bold operations has already been shown in the sales of railway stocks: however these market tactics need not seriously disturb those who have bought the stocks of the first-grade lines for investment purposes. Foreign railway stocks have shared in the reaction and a check must be to the ultimate benefit of the market: the traffics of the Buenos Ayres Great Southern, Buenos Ayres Pacific, Buenos Ayres Rosario and Buenos Ayres Western show substantial increases for the week and the Leopoldina Railway with an increase of £17,185 or nearly 50 per cent. is especially noticeable—the total increase for the year of this line is no less than £156,453, and these figures explain the improvement in the quotation for the Ordinary stock which is now 81, having advanced from 50½ during the current year. In connexion with the Argentine we are informed that a cablegram has been received from a trustworthy source to the effect that swarms of locusts have appeared in the Entre Rios district. This pest is always more or less present in the Argentine and the present invasion may not prove so serious as the cablegram would lead one to infer. As we have however drawn attention to shares of the various land companies it is desirable to mention a matter which largely explains the fall in quotations.

The mining market has, for the moment at any rate, regained pride of place in the House but whether the improvement in prices which has been so marked during the week will continue depends almost entirely on the cohesion that is now said to exist among the various controlling houses. The lamentable feud which has obtained for many months between two of the chief houses and has found expression in the heavy "bear" selling of one of them, is now reported to be at an end—it remains to be seen if the public can be induced to enter the market again or whether those who are mainly responsible for the break in the market have done their work more thoroughly than they had imagined. Our own view is that if the present quotations are maintained for a month or so and any tendency to rush prices by speculators is kept under a measure of confidence will be restored. But we doubt if anything like the old "boom" days will be seen again—at any rate we earnestly hope not. The public has become more discriminating and the enormous losses it has sustained in the past by the flotation of prospectusless companies, introduced on the market at an inflated price, will not soon be forgotten. With any continuance of activity we are satisfied that similar attempts will be made by promoters to offload South African properties and a great responsibility lies with the financial press and with stockbrokers to do their utmost to prevent these gentlemen succeeding. That there are many mines in South Africa which are intrinsically cheap at their present prices can be demonstrated—mines which will give a handsome return after allowing for redemption of capital, but these are overlooked too frequently in favour of some companies which are brought more prominently before the public and are now pointed to as showing the poor return which can be had from mining investments on the Rand.

There has been a good inquiry for investments on a 4 to 4½ per cent. basis, and the following list of debenture stocks may be of interest. The expansion which is taking place in electrical undertakings, either

by the supply of power or for traction purposes, is very considerable; the marked revival in the iron and steel trade, significantly illustrated in the trade returns for August, which show an increase of £411,297 in the exports of manufactured steel and iron, lends a special interest to that section of industrial investment.

Debenture Stock	Rate per cent.	Redemption	Price	Yield per cent.	Dividends payable
Chelsea Electricity	4½	1910 @ 110	110	4 2 0	Jan., July
County of London 1st Deb. ..	4½	1923 @ 115	113	4 0 0	Jan., July
Do. 2nd Deb.	4½	1923 @ 105	104½	4 5 6	May, Nov.
Edmundson's Electricity	4½	1935 @ 105	117½	4 4 0	Jan., July
Midland Electric Corporation ..	4½	1908 @ 102½	101	4 9 6	June, Dec.
South Metropolitan	4½	1931 @ 120	108½	4 0 0	April, Oct.
Birmingham and Midland Trams	4½	1915 @ 105	102	4 9 0	Jan., July
Baldwins	4½	1938 @ 100	104	4 6 9	Jan., July
W. Beardmore	4½	1907 @ 105	106½	4 5 0	Jan., July
Cannell Laird	4½	1914 @ 102½	106½	4 5 0	Jan., July
Cargo Fleet Iron Co.	4½	yearly from £12,500 1907	95	4 15 0	June, Dec.
John Lysaght	4½	1910 @ 110	110	4 2 0	Jan., July
John Thorneycroft	5	1915 @ 105	104	4 16 3	Jan., July

Of the above the Cargo Fleet Iron is particularly attractive, having regard to the high yield obtainable. The virtual combination of the Weardale Steel, Coal and Coke Co. and the Cargo Fleet has resulted in the rearrangement and reconstruction of the mines and plant, whilst it is claimed that the company will own the most modern steel-works in Great Britain or elsewhere. The issue of £500,000 debentures is secured by a charge over assets, excluding goodwill, amounting to nearly a million, and in addition carry the guarantee of the Weardale Steel, Coal and Coke Co., which has an issued capital of £725,000 and debenture stock of £400,000.

INSURANCE.

BRITISH LIFE OFFICES FOR THE UNITED STATES.

MANY British insurance companies transact Fire insurance in the United States and a few British Accident companies also do business there; but there are no British Life offices actively engaged in Life assurance business in the United States. We were recently discussing insurance matters with an American friend, who is particularly well informed about business matters in both the States and England. He was strongly of opinion that the disclosures in connexion with the American Equitable had resulted in a feeling of uneasiness about many of the American companies, and thought that the best British and Scottish Life offices would be cordially welcomed and warmly supported if they opened branches in the States. Certain objections, by no means insuperable, were apparent, and with a view to finding out how the question was regarded, especially by Life companies already having Fire branches in the States, we made some inquiries as to the reasons for British offices abstaining from Life business in the States. So far as we could learn in the absence of most of the managers the question has been little considered and the arguments against working there do not seem very strong.

There is a natural dislike on the part of British officials to the supervision of insurance which prevails in the States. The endless red-tape requirements, the arbitrary powers of insurance superintendents, the varying laws in the different States, and other features of an elaborate system which recent events have proved to be devoid of much value, do not conduce to the extension of British companies to the States. It is however found worth while to conform with these requirements for the sake of Fire business, which is certainly not very profitable on the whole. It is scarcely obvious, therefore, why such objections should prevent British Life offices opening branches in the States.

There is the further objection that the conditions of the business make the procuring of new policies more expensive in the States than it is here, and economy is regarded as of such supreme importance in the management of the best British offices that they hesitate to incur the necessary heavy expenditure. Again it is found that policies are much more frequently lapsed and surrendered in the States than in this country: many Americans when they lose money

promptly discontinue their policies, feeling confident that they will soon be well off again; whereas Englishmen for the most part feel that financial loss makes it more necessary to continue the payment of premiums. British companies do not want this temporary business, since they know perfectly well that lapses and surrenders are a source of loss rather than profit.

Unless such objections as these are fatal there would seem to be no obstacle to British companies operating in the States. The competition from American offices would not be very seriously felt since the reputation of British insurance companies in the States is deservedly high. Our American informant spoke strongly on this point in connexion with the settlement of Fire insurance claims, and there can be little doubt that many Americans would see that they could obtain greater advantages from British companies and national sentiment would not be likely to stand in the way. It is not easy to say exactly what are the conditions with which foreign companies have to comply in the States: they vary somewhat in each State, but we have examined the insurance laws of the State of New York and find nothing very serious to contend with in them. By this we mean that there is little with which conformity seems difficult, but the understanding of the present state of the law is quite a different thing. The laws are amended every year and there is a long schedule of laws repealed: the laws passed in forty-six consecutive years have been repealed, and if a similar condition of affairs prevails in every other State of the Union the difficulty of knowing what is and what is not the law must be considerable. In spite, however, of such difficulties as these there seem great opportunities for British Life offices to do a large business in the United States and the matter is well worth consideration, especially by companies which already have Fire branches established. If the experiment is to be made the present is an opportune time.

NAPOLEON AT HOME.

IF the chances of Imperialism in France were to be estimated by the amount of literature which the career of Napoleon continues to evoke they would surely be good. Not only are books on his public life and his European position still pouring forth from the press, but his relations with his family and his Court as well as his own private life are constantly appearing. Thus M. Masson who has already written four volumes on "Napoleon and his Family", one on "Napoleon and Women", and three on his relations with Joséphine, is now bringing out a work of seven volumes on Napoleon's home life. In the one already published we are introduced to the most trivial details. We are told not only how Napoleon dressed himself but how he shaved and cut his nails. The belief that "the general English reader" shares to some extent the same interest in the career of Bonaparte has induced Catherine Bearne, a lady who has already introduced the English public to French Courts of other days,* to publish a Life of Mme. Junot, the Duchess of Abrantès, under the title "A Leader of Society at Napoleon's Court".† The book is mainly based on the voluminous Memoirs of the Duchess. It is pleasantly written in a gossiping style fitted to her theme; it is illustrated by some interesting portraits, and, if somewhat wanting in method and in thoroughness, will no doubt suit its public, who do "not care to wade through long descriptions or many volumes"—especially when these are in French. Compilations of this sort are however never very satisfactory. They scarce pretend to be a critical study of the times, while they lose the freshness and the local colour of the original memoir, more especially when translated. Those, therefore, who can read French had far better spend their time on the original memoirs of the Duchess herself or on some of the many others which exist.

Mme. Permon, the mother of the Duchess, was of the royal family of the Comneni, who had settled in

Corsica. Coming to France in the reign of Louis XVI., she married M. Permon, a farmer of the taxes. She had long been intimate with the mother of Bonaparte, and knew him in the days of his obscurity. After his success in putting down the insurrection of the 13th of Vendémiaire, 1795, when Bonaparte was anxious to connect himself with the better society of the Faubourg S. Germain, he thought of uniting his family with that of the Permons by marriage, and even proposed to marry Mme. Permon herself, although she was old enough to be his mother. Laura, her daughter, the author of the Memoirs, became eventually the wife of Junot, one of Bonaparte's generals, and always one of his most faithful admirers. Junot for some time held the post of Commandant of Paris, and was created the Duc d'Abrantès, while his wife in 1806 was made a lady-in-waiting to Mme. Mère, the mother of the Emperor.

Napoleon insisted that his officials should keep a great house and entertain sumptuously, and the acquaintance of Mme. Junot with many of the old nobility who were rallying round the Emperor's throne made her especially useful for the purpose of fusing the society of the old and new régimes. Of the opportunities she thus had of sketching the history of those strange times she made good use. Passing over with but slight notice the startling events which were revolutionising France and Europe, she devoted her literary gifts, which were considerable, to the fêtes and the ceremonies of the consular and imperial days, relieving her narrative with many anecdotes and much gossip concerning the chief actors, described with French vivacity and humour. As she shared her husband's devotion to Napoleon, she takes a favourable view of his character, although here and there, especially at the close of Junot's life, when he had fallen somewhat out of favour with his master, she speaks with some bitterness of the Emperor's ingratitude.

The Memoirs are excellent reading, but people who would know Napoleon well should at least supplement her account from those of Mme. de Rémusat, the wife of the Prefect of the Palace, and subsequently First Chamberlain, who was herself one of the ladies-in-waiting to the Empress Joséphine. Although Mme. de Rémusat and her husband were at first dazzled by the success of Napoleon abroad, and at home, they never forgot their early devotion to liberal and constitutional ideas, and as time went on her tone changes to one of grave dissatisfaction with many of the Emperor's deeds and opinions. Her Memoirs moreover were written after the Restoration, when the Empire had to some extent lost its glamour: we find a more critical account of the Emperor, which should be read by those who wish to see the other side of the picture. The impression which these and other accounts give us of the Court, the family and the character of Napoleon is not a favourable one.

The aim of Bonaparte as of all parvenus who have risen to power was to form a Court. And as the Consulate passed into the Empire his ideas became more magnificent. "An aristocracy" he said "is the chief support of a monarchy, its lever and its balance". The ancient nobility were accordingly tempted to return to Court by the grants of new titles or confirmation of their old ones. The successful generals and administrators were ennobled and given large revenues whereby they might maintain a fitting display. Various grades of nobility from that of Prince downwards were created. The most rigorous etiquette was introduced. The regulations for the Court of Louis XIV. were ransacked for models, the services of Mme. Campan the first lady-in-waiting of Marie Antoinette were enlisted and dancing-masters were engaged to teach the ladies how to curtsy and how to valse; Napoleon even dreamt of surrounding his imperial palace with those of the royal and princely feudatories of the Empire who by living in Paris should add dignity to his throne. No expense was spared to make his levees a success and the magnificence of his new Court far outshone that of the old monarchies.

The attempt was not wholly successful. Napoleon confessed subsequently that he had made the mistake of doing either too much or too little for the old nobility. Too little to satisfy them, yet more than the

* Cf. (1) "Lives and Times of the Early Valois Queens." (2) "Pictures of the Old French Court."

† "A Leader of Society at Napoleon's Court." By Catherine M. Bearne. London: Unwin, 10s. 6d.

Republicans could brook. The old nobility looked askance at the bourgeois creations of his day. The rough marshals, many of whom had risen from the ranks, found it difficult to exchange their military habits and language for those of a court. Beneath the tinsel splendour there was little reality, and no ease. The society was torn by intrigues. Each member was jealous of the other, while all were afraid of their tyrannical master whose suspicions were quickly aroused and with difficulty set to rest. Hard to please, "L'inamusable", as Talleyrand called the Emperor, threw a chilling cloud over all the brilliancy, and there was a general sense of gêne which the grace and real if somewhat shallow kindness of the Empress Joséphine could not remove.

Nor were the relations of Napoleon with his family more happy. He fondly hoped, as many rulers have, to make them the chief supports of his throne, he found in them instead a constant source of trouble. The astonishing success of their brother seemed only to excite their personal ambition and their rivalries. Joseph, the future King of Naples and then of Spain, felt aggrieved because he was not treated as the head of the family. Lucien, although he had taken a prominent part in the coup d'état of Brumaire which raised Bonaparte to the Consulate, insisted on airing his liberal views, irritated his brother by the scandals of his private life, and finally disgusted him by marrying the wife of a stockbroker. Louis, the future King of Holland, as Napoleon said himself, gave him as much trouble by his hypocritical pretensions to virtue as Lucien did by his vices, and treated his wife with neglect and cruelty, while Jérôme the youngest the most contemptible of the lot deserted his wife and child as a price for the crown of Westphalia. When at last all except Lucien had become kings they insisted on acting as if they held their kingdoms by the grace of God instead of at the Emperor's will, and attempted an independence which ill suited his plans. Of his sisters, Caroline who married Joachim Murat—the son of an innkeeper, a man "with the face of a poodle and plumes like a dancing dog", as Marshal Lannes once said of him, but thought a great cavalry general—was never satisfied till her husband was made King of Naples. Eliza Bacciochi had to be conciliated with the Grand Duchy of Tuscany and the sovereignty of Lucca; Pauline Borghèse with the title of Princess, and all gave Napoleon serious anxieties by their follies and numerous liaisons. Jealous of each other both brothers and sisters, with the exception of Lucien, were united in their common hostility to the Beauharnais, Eugène and Hortense, the children of Joséphine by her first husband. They resented the idea that the son of Hortense should be declared the heir, and were ever urging the Emperor to divorce his wife and cast envious glances on the succession to the Imperial throne until the second wife of Napoleon, the Empress Marie Louise, by bearing him a son at last settled that fruitful source of quarrel.

No doubt the peace of many royal families has been disturbed by the same cause, but with the Bonaparte family who had risen so unexpectedly and so fast, and at a time when so many dependent crowns at least were going a-begging the temptation to jealousy and intrigue was fiery indeed. Nor was the Emperor himself well fitted to smooth these discontents. Of few great men can it be said that their private character is altogether satisfactory, and none perhaps have had their daily life subjected to such a minute scrutiny as was Napoleon's. Be that as it may the Emperor was scarcely a lovely character. Emotional and at times almost hysterical he had little heart and no real generosity. He was violent in his passions and intensely suspicious. Impatient of contradiction and tyrannical, he disliked those who showed any signs of independence: he watched them through his agents Fouché and Savary, and generally relegated them to some distant command or inferior position or got rid of them altogether. Women Napoleon never understood. To dress well, to bear children, to please man—this according to him was their rôle in life. He sacrificed those who were weak to his passing whims or used them as pawns in his political game. He feared the enterprise of the more powerful and capable in politics, and

if any dared to criticise his conduct he either tried to cow them by threats or, as with Mme. Récamier or Mme. de Staël, banished them from his Court. As time went on, as his health gave way, and his mighty empire began to crumble these defects increased; and when he finally fell he left but few who mourned for him as a friend, though many no doubt from motives good and bad regretted the days when France under his rule had reached the highest place she has ever held in Europe.

That Napoleon was superlatively great it would be childish to deny. That he did great things for his country, especially in his earlier days, it would be absurd to dispute. Nevertheless the nearer we get to the man himself the more we are convinced that had he been of finer stuff and less insatiably ambitious the history of France and of Europe during his lifetime and after might have been far different.

DICKENS AS MELODRAMATIST.

IF I cannot say that the version of "Oliver Twist" performed at His Majesty's Theatre made a very great impression upon me, I can at least say that the impression it did make was unexpectedly favourable. I was fully prepared to dislike it intensely, as I have disliked all previous dramatisations of Dickens that it has been my lot to witness. Few good books make good plays, but none that I know of make quite such bad plays as do the best novels of Dickens. If the cause of this peculiarity can be found, it may be that it will also become apparent why, while Little Em'ly and Tom Pinch seemed to me intolerable profanations of "David Copperfield" and "Martin Chuzzlewit", Mr. Tree's "Oliver Twist" did not seem so altogether unworthy a rendering of the "Oliver Twist" of Dickens.

Dickens was beyond all question a great man—the greatest elemental genius, I think, that England has produced since Shakespeare. He was also an exceedingly clever man with a ready and fluent pen, who wrote clever stories and could, I do not doubt, have written clever plays. But his greatness and his cleverness were quite independent of each other, and indeed constantly thwarted and dwarfed each other. Examine any of those colossal comedic figures that seem to live outside time, and you will find that in almost every case they have little or nothing to do with the story in which they appear and which we read only for their sakes. Transfer them from one novel to another and they would thrive just as well. It is difficult sometimes to remember to which they properly belong, for in truth they belong to no novel, but to one great comic epic, which is Dickens. Furthermore, when their creator tries to work them into one of his clever machine-made plots, he generally spoils them, as he almost spoils Micawber and entirely spoils Skimpole. That is why in dramatic versions you never get anything but the dregs of Dickens, for a play must needs follow a connected story, and, in following one of Dickens' stories, it loses everything that makes the story worth following.

But with "Oliver Twist" the case is somewhat different. Therein the cleverness of Dickens has free play, because his greatness is almost wholly in abeyance. I do not mean to say that "Oliver Twist" is a bad book. Had anyone but Dickens written it, I should call it, with all its faults, a very brilliant book. It contains much clever political and social satire, some good specimens of realistic journalism of the "slum-and-cellar" type, and two or three scenes of really impressive horror. But one misses throughout the strong intoxicating laughter and the irrepressible gaiety of creation which are the greatness of Dickens. It would seem to have been written in a mood of reaction against the sumptuous hilarity of "Pickwick" with the intention of showing that the author could do tragedy as well as comedy. He could not do it as well; it never had the same humanity or the same air of greatness. But so long as the tragedy is the tragedy of external horror he could make it sufficiently effective. Dickens could be honestly and vigorously horrible. It was only when he tried to be sad that he became maudlin and

hypocritical. "Oliver Twist" at its best is a melodramatic tragedy, and Mr. Comyns Carr and Mr. Tree have been able to transfer this melodramatic tragedy to the stage without exciting in discriminating lovers of Dickens those evil passions which are inevitably aroused by the attempt to dramatise his comedic masterpieces.

Mr. Tree has been well advised in taking for his own the part of Fagin, both because it is admirably suited to his special histrionic powers and because the Jew is incomparably the most picturesque figure in the story. After his own kind of riotous humour there was no medium that suited Dickens so well as a certain kind of grotesque diablerie. He was fond of drawing characters in whom human wickedness was heightened by a touch of something almost supernatural, and in whose personalities humour and horror blended as in a nightmare. Quilp was perhaps his masterpiece in this manner, and Fagin is in reality a gargoyle of the same kind. No actor is so capable of doing justice to such a figure as Mr. Tree. From Fagin's first appearance in the thieves' kitchen to his screaming exit from the condemned cell he contrived not merely to depict perfectly the externals of his character, his Hebrew lisp, his sniggering cunning, his squirming cowardice, but also to suggest the something not human in him which I feel certain Dickens intended.

The criminals are decidedly the most attractive figures on the stage as they are in the book. Mr. Lyn Harding's rendering of Sikes was a really strong piece of work, and one cannot help regretting that it was impossible to put on the stage the most powerful scenes in which he appears, those which immediately follow the murder. If the Artful Dodger, who in the original is unquestionably the most vividly characterised of the thieves, was less wholly satisfying, it was not the fault of Mr. Stanmore, who played the part with great force and vivacity, but was part of the inevitable limitation of drama as compared with fiction. Miss Constance Collier I confess did not satisfy me. There are crudities doubtless in the development of Nancy's character in the book, but its whole dramatic force clearly depends on her appearing at first as an utterly coarse and hardened woman. Miss Collier was hardly criminal enough even in the opening scenes. She seemed more like a virtuous lady disguising herself as a thief than a criminal redeemed by flashes of magnanimity and self-devotion.

Of the virtuous characters I can only say that they are as dull and colourless in the play as they are in the novel, and that my only sentiment in watching the dreary scenes, in which they discuss whether Oliver has for once in a way shown sufficient force of character to commit a crime, was a feverish longing to get back to the infinitely healthier atmosphere of the thieves' kitchen and hear Mr. Tree lisp instructions to his promising pupils or Mr. Harding beating Miss Collier about the head. I feel nothing but the profoundest compassion for the unfortunate actors and actresses who have to portray such lay figures as Dr. Sime and the Maylies, and for none more than for Miss Nellie Bowman, to whom the part of Oliver is assigned. I really do not know what Miss Bowman could be expected to do. The best actress could not have made the character of Oliver credible; and the worst could not have made him more incredible than he is made by his creator.

As to the plot it is as patently unreal as Dickens' plots always are, and I confess that I have already forgotten it. Fagin and Sikes and the Dodger are interesting because they are genuine products of the writer's imagination. The plot he invented because there had to be some kind of story, and the affair of the lost Will served as well to tie things together as anything else would have done. Such as the plot is, it cannot be said that Mr. Carr has developed it very skilfully, but he could hardly have developed it more carelessly or amateurishly than Dickens himself has done. After all, Fagin is the real hero of "Oliver Twist" and Fagin, as I have said, is all that could be desired.

CECIL CHESTERTON.

THE NIGHT.

FOND muse surrender, weary as thou art,

To sleep at last: a meadow's breadth from thee
In yon dim copse and still thy sister's heart
Hath respite from its old sweet agony.

The wall of night is up: around, across,
Above nor sound nor sense of day remains,
Comes only now the fitful drive and toss
Of moths upon the yellow window panes.

RALPH HODGSON.

THE INVASION OF KENT.

THE County of Kent is very proud of her motto "Invicta". But let other counties, who have bent beneath the conqueror's yoke, take heart; unconquered though she boast herself, Kent knows enough of the terrors of invasion to make allowances for those who yield. Every year, since beyond the memory of man, her peaceful solitudes have been invaded by the enemy. Every year the "Garden of England", as she complacently calls herself, is as the garden of a duke who, with weak amiability, throws open his grounds to the public. The duke, if a rich man (and on all impecunious dukes may Heaven have mercy), sends out an army of under-gardeners to clear away the fragments that remain, the tatters of cheap millinery, and the broken bottles. Poor dwellers in the unconquered county sigh yearly with Coleridge "Tell me nymphs what power divine shall henceforth wash the" County of Kent. The fault is with them. They first invited the invader.

For the enemy is the hopper, whose ravaging myriads devastate annually, who looks on Kent as providentially supplied to give him his yearly holiday, and a fair wage for a fair day's work. As to the last demand we are quite at one with him. Of course we dispute as to what is a fair wage: are we not farmers to whom bargaining is a delightful game? Is he not in most cases a member of a union? But our trouble is that he draws no line between work and play. He can't afford a month's holiday, so he comes to work, and work hard, in the hop-gardens, and insists upon looking on it as a gigantic spree. It is this that makes trouble. The farmer wants his hops picked, means business, and can hardly be blamed for resenting beanfeasts.

For several days, if Kent people, we have been fortifying ourselves against invasion. First we nail up every gate, for the hopper was not brought up under the old rule, "Shut the door after you, and you'll never be chid", nor do we wish all our stock to stray. Besides, provide him never so liberally with faggots, he loves the cheerful blaze made by old oak, and delights in feeding his fire with five-barred gates. Nail them up, and he lets them alone, aware that you are up to his little dodges, and liking you the better therefor. Again, we gather all our fruit and all our flowers and make presents to our friends. It is a forced liberality. Did we not do so, the hoppers would have them. *Haec porcis hodie comedenda relinques.* Our village grocer barricades his shop, and makes his counter wide with disused tea-chests. So he may keep his customers at arm's length, and safely weigh out his tea and bacon. Not that he fears theft. Your hopper does not steal, and would be the first to resent such an imputation. Steal? Not he! But he is out on the spree, and takes anything he can lay his hands on. If you cannot see the joke, you have no business in Kent when hops are picking.

Like the locust swarms in Africa, the noble army of hoppers sends before it Vorlopers. For the last fortnight our roads have swarmed with families waiting for a job. Such families! A small maiden, in whom we fancied a relationship to Wordsworth's prize idiot, told us the other day, "I am nine in family, and must get food for the children". God help her. She did not look much more than nine in years. Doubtless she was an impostor, but, unless you have the stony heart of a real live philanthropist, you have to give,

finding, as did Lamb, comfort in the thought that it is not one of the seven deadly sins to be taken in.

From such poor drifting wrecks the real army is easily distinguishable. Though they look dragged enough and weary, bending like Hiawatha's ghost visitors beneath their weight of pots and kettles, they know whither they are bound. They have come to gather Mr. So-and-So's hops. If you like to help them on their way, so. But they do not beg, unless it be a pipe of bacca, if they meet you blowing a cheery cloud while they are wistfully fingering an empty pipe. It is no wonder that they should look weary. They left London at midnight say, arriving at the station here about six. There is no indecent express hurry about the hoppers' train. They packed themselves, their babies, and their bundles, twenty in a compartment. They will do it, let the guards do and say what they will. So packed, they sang comic songs all the way down, while a young man and woman danced interminable jigs in the carriage between the serried rows of knees. Having got out, they shoulder their baggage and start to walk perhaps half a dozen miles. No wonder they look like boiled owls. But to-morrow is Sunday. Wait, and you shall see them in their glory. Few things surprise us more than the wonderful change visible. In the men it is not so marked, but the young women, yesterday drabby, are gorgeous (too gorgeous, but that is a question of taste), and the children! Can these smart young ladies in crisp white muslins with bright sashes and wonderfully curled hair be the little tatterdemalions we met toiling tearfully up the hill yesterday? Can those dreadful bundles to which we gave so wide a berth really have contained all this finery? Can those toilettes have been made in the hopper houses, which are either long sheds divided into compartments with no windows, or wooden boxes like bathing machines? It is so; we see it yearly, and wonder more and more. On Monday they moult their fine feathers which it would be a sin to take into the gardens.

For, hopping is grubby, dirty, sticky work. And hard work too, easy as it looks. Being, some years ago, hard of faith we doubted this and resolved to do a day at it, starting with the rest at seven and working till six with one hour off for dinner. Well, we did it, and were supported from the field, cramped, chastened, and quite converted. Every shilling a hopper earns, and with luck and skill he can earn a good many, is fairly won. We do not grudge him his wage nor his women their gay apparel; our one complaint is that he is so offensively depressingly cheerful. For his cheerfulness is not our sort. He is undeveloped; a great and very noisy boy. He is at that stage when practical joking amuses, when it tickles to see a blind man walk into a pond. Of course he will pick him out and wipe him dry, but he will do it with shouts of Homeric laughter. Others may complain of some other points about him, as his language, which is monotonous in the extreme. But he would probably be a worse man if he could curse as elaborately as Ernulphus or Panurge, and the rustic is about as bad as he is.

"If he call rogue and rascal from a garret
He means you no more mischief than a parrot."

We could put up with his vocabulary if he did not shout it.

But his high spirits are very very trying. They lead him sometimes to the verge of crime. We have only heard of one case of highway robbery and of that we doubt. The man to whom it happened was just the bumptious little boulder whom his own friends would delight to "hold up". They did it in hopping, because the hoppers would get the blame. That is the trouble; we go in fear day and night lest they take it into their heads to have a lark with us.

Our friend the station-master, who at this season becomes palpably thinner and paler, will tell many tales of the "hopper". If, by hook or by crook, he can manage it, he will not pay his fare. One ticket for three is his plan. No. 1 buys his ticket, shows it, gets on the platform, passes it over the palings to No. 2 and conceals himself under the carriage seat. No. 2 does the same. No. 3 sits above them till the train starts, when

they emerge dusty but triumphant. Grudge the money? Not they. It is their idea of fun. Our station-master has a story of a stalwart Irishwoman who came yearly with a small husband and as regularly returned without him. Den Jüngling bringt keines wieder. One fatal day someone dropt a heavy box on the homeward-bound lady's bundle, which instantly began to swear fluently. The devoted wife had made a practice of smuggling her man through the barriers in a sack. She confessed quite unabashed, only grumbling a little at having for once to pay legal fare.

THE PRIMA DONNA.

A FEW years ago a great question was raised in a daily paper: what shall we do with our girls? The Americans tried to solve it some years ago by sending them all to Paris to become prima donnas. They came over in shoals and perhaps one in a million succeeded in becoming a superior chorus girl. I sometimes wonder how many I have met in drawing-rooms and theatres and how many of them have succeeded in doing anything whatever. Probably the bulk of them drift back to those well-known small cities New York, Chicago and Boston; but to my knowledge there are dozens of them hanging on in a lonely way in the various opera-houses of Europe. They live a miserable life, they dwell in wretched hotels or pensions, their voices being hopelessly broken they squeal three or four times a week, and in the end they marry or disappear, no man knows where. The English prima donna is of course much more of a rarity. English women as a rule have not the American's sheer power of impudence, and also, it is to be regretted, they have not the American woman's voice. Still, as there is a very small chance for an English singer in England, a few go to French or German towns; and if any reader of this paper will tell me of a case of one of them making a name and arriving at any position he will greatly oblige me by letting me know a little about the matter. Australians and Canadians are, for some unknown reason, in another boat. They cross the ocean and somehow manage to get on: witness Melba and Albani. Why Madame Albani ever got on was always, is, and always will be a mystery to me. Madame Melba, although her voice was never of a particularly fine quality, had a wonderful technique in her day; but even she, had she been an Englishwoman, would not have been a successful prima donna. Of that I am certain. There are singing at the present time better singers than Melba: they are not only better singers but infinitely better actresses; but the public which pays enormous prices to hear Melba will not take the trouble to stir out of the house to hear an Englishwoman.

No Englishman with daughters could do a rasher thing than permit them to take lessons from eminent professors with a view of going on the stage. The opera stage in England scarcely exists. At Covent Garden a woman who can speak good English can only get in by force of social influence; and abroad a foreigner has very great difficulty because she cannot speak or sing with a perfect accent. The foreign lady or gentleman comes across here and on occasion will venture to sing in English, and their mistakes bring nothing more than a smile to the faces of the audience. But let an English singer go to France or Germany and something totally different happens. In 1897 Tamagno sang at Monte Carlo before an audience which was mainly French. He mispronounced a word and a peal of derisive laughter covered even his stentorian notes. In Brussels I heard an American tenor laughed at because some of his vowels were not quite pure—Brussels, where their French is the most villainous patois I have ever heard. In Germany I have heard both French and English artists laughed at because their accent was not absolutely correct. So, then, England being excluded because Covent Garden does not love the English, and France and Germany being nearly excluded because few English ever learn to speak French or German perfectly, what has a girl who wants to sing on the stage to hope for?

It will be easy enough now for the reader to guess

my drift. The only woman who gets on as a prima donna is the woman of indomitable resolution, no conscience (artistic or other), and no sense of shame. She wants to get on and nothing prevents her getting on. She would succeed equally well were she dealing in hardware; in nine hundred and ninety-nine cases out of a thousand she would succeed just as well in the one trade as in the other; she rarely has any artistic feeling. Her motive is vanity; she wants to be admired, applauded, praised by the press, and to have flowers thrown to her. She forces her way through to the front; she tramples underfoot such of her rivals as happen to have a touch of the true artistic temperament—in a word she wins. For years the prima donna has been a byword, a mock and a scorn; and when one comes to understand the game the common opinion is justified, for it is nearly always only the lowest of the low that get through. (As in my article of a week or two ago I must say that of course there are exceptions.) What can you expect? There are directors' vanities to be played up to; there are conductors' whims to be met; there are a hundred rich hangers-on of all the opera-houses to have to be pleased by your complaisance: what wonder if the real artist shrinks and rather prefers to earn an honest thirty shillings a week in the chorus than lick the soles of the feet of many unknown gentlemen, what wonder if the woman wins who sticks at nothing? And, finally, what wonder if the prima donnas who get applauded and have their photographs in the illustrated weekly papers are spiteful, 'cute and often mere disreputable females?

The worst of the whole thing is this: many a young woman, ambitious, hopeful, full of artistic enthusiasm, joins in the game, tries to get on, and ultimately finds that the only way of getting on is to do as her seniors are doing: she drops the artist and speedily becomes nothing better than her competitors. It would be painful, if not libellous, to give the names of many ladies, not known personally to me, whom I have seen make their first appearances on the stage as artists and afterwards degenerate into prima donnas, trying to "fluff" their colleagues—trying, in fact, in every way to shove themselves before the public and to prevent the public from seeing that their colleagues existed. The loss in good material is enormous: those who are not driven into the chorus or off the stage altogether become simply trade prima donnas. Whatever happens they are lost to art. Prima donnas are expensive to educate. Their lessons cost a couple of pounds the hour. Most of them do not succeed; most who do succeed come to grief in another way. The man who lets his daughter become a soprano stage singer ought to be considered a criminal—unless: well, unless she is strong-minded and determined to be.

JOHN F. RUNCIMAN.

MOTOR-TOURING.

IV. EQUIPMENT.

ALL pastimes continue in interest only so long as they keep at bay the host of parasite accessories which tend to devour them. The motorist, no less than the Alpinist and the amateur gardener, is in peril of this invasion, and how far he sinks beneath it is largely a question of the pocket. With the example of the golfer staggering under his load of useless clubs and the photographer sitting confounded in the midst of his litter of patent shutters, printing-frames, and bottles of noxious acid, beware, O motorist, lest thou too lose thy first pristine enjoyment, and lie stifled beneath a weight of leather cases!

The equipment of the car itself and the things which must be carried if it is to perform its proper task with precision and punctuality are many and costly enough, so that the traveller who has a mind to economy must not indulge himself unduly. Yet if one is to travel for many days or weeks, and have always at hand the things that make for comfort on a journey, it is necessary to make very careful preparations, so that one shall not be on the one hand overloaded with useless baggage, nor, on the other, forced to do without some comfortable accessory of travel which a little fore-

thought would have provided. And here again, the kind of journey one proposes to take must be remembered in choosing one's equipment. If it is to be a daily run from one hotel to another, very little baggage will be wanted. If our journey includes visits to friends in the country, of course the amount of luggage will be at once increased, although in this case it is as well to have a trunk or two packed with what is specially required on such visits and sent on by rail from house to house. Again, we may wish to be really adventurous and to camp out sometimes, in which case tents, cooking apparatus, sleeping bags or camp beds, and the whole furniture of a camp must be carried. This is not so formidable a matter as it may appear, for the needs of motorists have been specially studied, and there are camp equipments sold which are specially designed for transport in motor-cars, and which take up very little room. Only in this case, in addition to the small sleeping tent supplied with such equipments (which is not exactly a luxurious apartment) I recommend the carrying of several large square sheets of thin waterproof, fitted with holes and brass rings at intervals along the edges. These, with a plentiful supply of stout cord and a bag of tent-pegs, will make possible the erection of all kinds of luxurious tents, according to the nature of the place of encampment, and provided there is some large and high object, like the motor-car itself, to form the background of the structure. It is assumed that the motor-car is fitted with a long Cape-cart hood, which when it is set stretches forward over the whole length of the car; some such means of shelter is quite necessary on a car used for touring.

The arrangement of the tent is very much a matter of personal ingenuity; but one good way is this: Turn the car broadside to the wind, open and secure the hood, and fasten the side curtains in place. Now take a large waterproof sheet, fasten one edge of it along the top of the hood on the lee side of the car, and secure the opposite edge with cords and pegs to the ground at such a slope that the lower edge is about two feet off the ground. The sheet being square will fall naturally into triangular flaps at each side, one of which must be secured to the wheel of the car, and the other left loose for a door. You will now have a lean-to which will be clean, sheltered and airy, especially if another sheet be fastened against the sides of the car to cover the wheels and steps, and another (of course) spread on the ground. This can be used as a sleeping room and the inside of the car itself as a dining room. It is only one out of many ways of improvising a tent out of a motor-car.

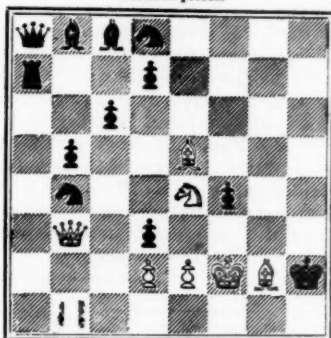
In providing a camping equipment there is more danger that the inexperienced will carry too much than too little. The essentials are the waterproof sheets, a good-sized spirit stove and equipment of saucepans and kettles (which are made to fit into each other and take up very little space); canvas bath, basins, and buckets, and either a small cork mattress and blankets or a sleeping bag. If you are very luxuriously inclined you can carry a folding bedstead which can be set up in two minutes and when folded up occupies as much room as a bag of golf clubs; but that will depend on how much space you have to spare. If you have only one car, the luggage and equipment of two persons will probably make a very tight fit, and involve some skill in its packing and disposal. The really luxurious plan for camping out, as we said in an earlier article, is to travel with two cars, and send one on in front with the luggage; and in this case a truly noble sleeping apartment can be made by stretching the waterproof sheet between the hoods of the two cars, and draping the sides and ends with other sheets. But this is a counsel of extreme luxury. As regards the table equipment a well-fitted picnic basket is all that is wanted; food itself can generally best be carried in small parcels.

As to clothing and luggage the best plan is to take as little as possible; sending on luggage in advance to any place where appearances have to be studied. A fitted suit-case will hold all that is wanted in the way of change; the rest, the motor clothing proper, is a matter of externals. Each passenger should have his own waterproof rug; there is nothing so annoying as to feel that one is being robbed of one's due share of a common rug, and yet be unable to protest. An over-

coat lined with soft leather, a white cashmere neckcloth, a waterproof overall with rubber neck and wrists, a pair of good goggles, lined gloves, and a cap with flaps to fit over the ears, should also be taken by each passenger; one is thus independent of any weather. It is also a good plan to have a large net basket fixed to the back of the front seats, in which maps and books can be kept on the journey. This also should contain a rubber bag containing a sponge wet with water and bay rum, or lavender water. It is wonderfully refreshing in the course of a long dusty summer's drive to apply the sponge for the removal of dust and heat, and the effect of the cool breeze on spirit is inimitably refreshing to the skin. Besides, why should a motorist have a dirty face?

CHES.

PROBLEM 39. By THE LATE REV. J. JESPERSEN.
Black 22 pieces.



White 7 pieces.

White to mate in three moves.

KEY TO PROBLEM 38: 1. Q-R7.

"Coming events cast their shadows before." Maroczy, who has won two international tournaments—one at Ostend and the other at Barmen—within the last two months, showed distinct evidence of greatness when he first entered the international arena at Hastings ten years ago. As in the case of artists and authors, early productions of great chess-players gain in interest when their fame is established. The game given below was played in the minor tournament at Hastings in 1895 and is a typical example of his play:—

IRREGULAR OPENING.

White	Black	White	Black
Rev. J. Owen.	G. Maroczy.	Rev. J. Owen.	G. Maroczy.
1. Kt-KB3	P-KKt3	3. P-K3	...
2. P-Q4	B-Kt2		

How, when, or where white intends to develop the queen's bishop is something of a mystery.

3. ...	P-Q3	6. P-KR3	BxKt
4. B-Q3	P-K4	7. QxB	P-QB3
5. P-B3	B-Kt5		

By conceding the slight theoretical advantage involved in the exchange of bishop for knight in the early stages of the game black shows far-seeing judgment. The quid pro quo is in the removal of a piece which was well posted for one which had no immediate future. There is also much promise in the attack commencing with P-KB4.

8. Kt-R3	Kt-Q2	11. B-B2	Kt-K2
9. Kt-B4	Q-B2	12. P-K4	...
10. P-Q5	Kt-B4		

Nothing has been gained by moving this pawn twice when it could have been placed there on the third move. Of course the game subsequently must have been very different, but white should suffer for this loss of time.

12. ...	PxP	14. B-Kt3	...
13. PxP	Kt-Q2		

White is reduced to defending his queen's pawn which is going to be the object of attack. Kt-K3 at once would be useless on account of P-B4 and P-B5.

14. ...	P-QKt4	18. Kt-B2	P-QR4
15. Kt-K3	P-B4	19. Kt-R3	Q-B4
16. Q-K2	R-QKt5	20. P-B4	P-Kt5
17. Castles	P-B5	21. Kt-Kt5	...

The knight is forced to go here, even though in reality it only attacks vacuum. If Kt-B2 or Kt-Kt1, then black replies Kt-Kt3, threatening P-R5.

21. ... Castles 22. K-R2 Q-Kt3

Now Kt-Kt3 might be met by P-R3, as the possession of the QKt file is interrupted. Black somehow is continually gaining time by saving it—one of the properties of a superior position.

23. P-R3 Kt-B4 25. B-K4 Kt-B4
24. B-B2 P-Kt6

Apparently inviting the exchange of a piece so as to be able later to advance P-K5. But it also threatens Kt-Kt6 when after PxKt, PxP ch &c. would follow winning easily.

26. P-Kt4 ...

A compromising move like this should spell disaster. Against a player only a shade weaker than his opponent it might, however, have turned the tables.

26. ... PxPe.p. 29. KxKt RxR
27. PxP KtxB 30. B-K3 RxR
28. QxKt KtxP

Offering the queen for two rooks is undoubtedly the quickest way of winning. From now until the end black's conduct of the game is as brilliant as it is artistic. Every move does something towards persuading his opponent that his game is lost.

31. BxQ RxB 35. K-R3 B-B5
32. P-KR4 B-R3 36. Q-B8 ch K-Kt2
33. K-Kt2 R-R2 37. Q-B7 ch K-R3
34. Q-Kt4 RxP ch 38. QxR ...

The fate of this rook was foreseen by black on his thirty-fourth move, and, taken in conjunction with the quiet and effective reply, the game is certainly a masterpiece of profound and courageous play.

38. ... R-Q7 41. K-Kt2 R-Kt6 ch
39. Kt x P K-R4 42. Resigns
40. Q-Kt1 R-Q6 ch

Black's thirty-eighth move deserves particular notice. He might have played K-R4 at once, but in all probability that would have lost the game. White's only reply is Q-Kt1, which ensures two pieces for the queen, while Kt-B6 would have stopped the advance of the pawn. White would then win by advancing P-B5.

CORRESPONDENCE.

MOTORISTS AND THE PUBLIC.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Hartford Bridge, Winchfield, 15 August, 1905.

SIR,—Since you were good enough to publish my letter to you on 1 July, a great deal of water has run under Hartford Bridge, or rather, a good many motors driven at excessive speed have passed over it.

You may remember that I then gave the various speeds of 80 motors passing here, out of which number 47 exceeded a rate of 25 miles an hour.

Within a few days of the appearance of my letter no less than 23 of these delinquents were summonsed and were mulcted in fines and costs to the amount of £195 10s. Reasonably it might have been supposed that such swift and sharp punishment would have acted as a deterrent to others who felt inclined to emulate their fellow-motorists in this trial of strength with the law. The following figures show how far such expectations have been justified.

During the month of July, from time to time I took the speeds of 100 passing motors and with the following results:—

Under 20 miles an hour	10
Over 20 miles and under 25 miles	44
" 25 "	" 30 "	" ...	" ...	31
" 30 "	" 35 "	" ...	" ...	8
" 35 "	" 40 "	" ...	" ...	7
				100

Giving an average speed of 25.03 miles. Since the average speed of the 80 cars, before the police directed serious attention to the reckless driving at this "dangerous crossing" was 25.51, it follows that the net mean improvement effected so far, is only a reduction of 0.48 of a mile or say about half a mile.

A simple calculation will show that if it thus cost:

£195 10s. to reduce the mean speed by .48 of a mile it will cost rather over £400 to reduce it by a whole mile and consequently at this rate, before we see all motors passing here at the regulated maximum speed, we must be prepared to witness the transference from the pockets of the motorists to the county rates of a further sum of £2,000 in fines. In this, as in many other instances, lookers-on would seem to enjoy decidedly the best part of the game. Such are at least my own feelings.

In my last letter I expressed my belief that a large number of motorists had little or no idea of the speed they were travelling at and subsequent observations and experiences have amply justified this opinion.

Living where I do, I see and hear much that occurs on the road and at times I admit it is almost distressing to witness the vexation and genuine chagrin of motorists who have unintentionally let their car run down Star Hill at 28 miles or so and upon whom it dawns, when "held up" by the inexorable policeman, that whatever may have been their predetermined objective, their immediate horizon is limited to the police court at Odiham. Were it possible for the law to differentiate between unintentional offenders and those who start daily with the deliberate intention of breaking the law as often as possible so long as they can avoid a "trap", one could wish to see these unfortunates let off with merely a police "caution". But it is just here that the law-breaking confraternity spoil the whole case for the far larger law-abiding section of motorists and the consequence is the ever-growing crop of summonses and inevitable fines for "exceeding the speed limit".

The curious thing is that although it lies within the power of every motorist to safeguard himself against such a mishap, very few at present take advantage of such protection. For ample mechanical means already exist to ensure that the speed limit is not exceeded. Among other inventions is the admirable "Motormeter" of Messrs. Elliott Bros. of Leicester Square which records on a dial with the greatest exactness the speed of a motor from moment to moment. But although this instrument has been in use for some years and has been proved to be absolutely reliable, hundreds, nay thousands of cars are running without any such appliance to let the driver know the speed at which he is travelling. In my last letter I called attention to the difficulty, nay the genuine impossibility, in certain circumstances of even approximately estimating one's speed when in a motor. Since then I have received letters on the subject from motorists endorsing my statements. One well-known motorist thoroughly versed in speeds who always uses a motormeter, writes that at low speeds where the distances from the centre of the road to the hedges vary, being at one time near and another far, he finds it practically impossible to guess the speed within 30 per cent.

The most amusing corroboration of this inability of skilled motorists to estimate even approximately their speeds when going either very slow or very fast has just come to hand. Among the hundreds of motometers supplied by Messrs. Elliott, some half-dozen purchasers of the same wrote to complain of the inaccuracy of these recorders. Here are two typical complaints which the firm have received. "I have put the speed indicator on and find that while it reads fairly correct at 20 miles an hour, when we are going 8 to 10 miles an hour, the speed indicator is quite wrong, indicating 15 or 16, and when we are going 35 or 40 miles an hour, the speed indicator only shows 28." Another writes: "The motormeter is going all right now, but my man fancies it registers far too much at low speeds."

Any motorist who cares can verify the truth of these statements. As good a way as any is to provide oneself with a 1-inch map on which the distances are marked off between recognisable landmarks, such as a stream, a cross road or railway bridge. This, with the aid of a stop-watch, will enable a traveller to ascertain with all accuracy the rates at which certain sections of the journey are traversed. If at the same time as he notes in his pocket book the places and times taken, he also enters the speeds over the same distances as estimated by the driver and himself he will find ample amusement when he returns home in judging the value of all such "guesswork" as now passes for accurate estimates of speed.

Small wonder that motorists, when caught, so frequently swear hard to "only 15 miles an hour" when the remorseless stop-watch and measured furlong shows 28 or 30 miles indisputably.

I had a good example of this only last week, when on a long journey in a motor; for strange to say I am extremely fond of motoring although I possess a stop-watch, can measure a furlong accurately and have even been known to speak to a policeman!

We were traversing the long winding high street of a village in this county and on entering it had slackened down from a high speed to "dead slow". My friend who owned the motor said to me "We always drive like this through the villages, about 6 miles an hour". All the same we covered the 750 yards through that village in just under two minutes by stop-watch which I reckon to be close upon 13 miles an hour; doubtless a dead slow pace for a powerful motor; but a trifle more than 6 miles.

But it may interest those motorists who really want to keep within the law to know that the motormeter can be fitted with a second hand or "maximum pointer" which is carried round the dial by the speed indicator and left at the point showing the maximum rate attained during the day's journey. The regulator to readjust this to the zero point is under lock and key, and it thus affords a damning proof of the maximum rate attained at any time. Curious to say, I hear from my motoring friends that this refinement of ingenuity is considered by them "useless" and "a rotten arrangement". I have not ventured so far to ask why.

Yours obediently,

WILLOUGHBY VERNER.

THE CAREFUL COPYIST.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Ardoch, Cardross, N.B., 4 Sept., 1905.

SIR,—Mr. Warner Allen, in your edition of 2nd September, falls foul of Mr. Tighe, who it appears has written a book called the "Queen of Unrest". Your reviewer seems to have fallen upon the unlucky Mr. Tighe for his "faults of style"; but Mr. Warner Allen is still unsatisfied. It seems to him surprising that your reviewer does not point out more of Mr. Tighe's blunders. This is hardly charitable, but accuracy is a hard taskmaster.

However Mr. Warner Allen, in his self-imposed office of censor, has fallen into some strange errors. It may be that he writes a bad hand, as do other writers I could name, but refrain from doing so, out of modesty. He comments upon Mr. Tighe's spelling of Spanish names, and points out that "Placenia" is a very extraordinary spelling of the name of a Spanish town. So it is to be sure, but not much worse than his own correction "Placentia". The Spanish spelling is "Plasencia", according to Madoz's "Geographical Dictionary of Spain".

Further on we come to the phrase "the Infante Ferdinand". Surely this, in the mouth of a purist should either be the "Infante Fernando" or the "Infant Ferdinand".

Cardinal Ximenes is generally known as Cardinal Cisneros in Spain; but let that pass, for even purism may be carried too far. Asturias is not usually called "the Asturias" in Spain, neither is "Andalucia" called "the Andalucia", nor do we in England speak of "the Wales". We speak of "Wales" and the Spaniards of "Asturias". Lastly Ximenes (Cisneros) was not born either at "Tordelajura", or "Tordelaguna" but at "Torrelaguna".

Personally I should not hold up Mr. Prescott the historian as a model of accuracy, for his bias is notorious, nor was he a very careful verifier of his facts. Far be it from me to be personal, as the old Scottish preacher said, after referring to a "gentleman in the laird's laft in a blue coat with brass buttons", but accuracy, accuracy, well now indeed, "hay que darle cuerda".

I am, Sir, your obedient humble servant,

R. B. CUNNINGHAME GRAHAM.

EDUCATION IN IRELAND.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

SIR,—The suggestion of a note of exclamation in your article of 26 August seems to incline towards a point of view, rather prevalent in some quarters, that immorality appears on the scene concurrently with the baby: you will agree that Irish priests cannot be blamed for drawing the line at a somewhat earlier stage. Whether their present solicitude on the point is exaggerated may be open to question, but at any rate two Irish characteristics are undisputed: a strong objection to mixed schools, and a standard of female virtue unequalled elsewhere in the world. How far the one hangs on the other cannot be proved to demonstration, but the facts themselves are outside controversy, and it is open to argument that the priests know more than the critics about their bearing on each other.

Further, the assumption that they object to the mixing of children under seven years of age is unfair. Far from this, I believe they would—and do—welcome mixed infant schools, per se, wherever possible. What they do object to is that this mixing would as a matter of fact necessitate the amalgamation of most of the small schools in the country—and at least seventy per cent. of the rural schools are small in this sense. From an apparently innocent reform, a mixing of the sexes would thus ensue up to ages at which even the most “advanced” expert would admit the possibility of moral danger.

I think that amalgamation, if carefully carried out, could be made morally safe; and that it might produce men and women better fitted to face the world than segregation; but at any rate such a change in the present system should not be thrown at the heads of some 8,000 managers, with schools of every conceivable size and variety of surroundings; with teachers accustomed to the separate system; with unsuitable buildings, and scholars of all ages, unprepared for the change, to be licked into their new shape within the next few years, before adequate preparation can be made to meet it. Such a revolution would be dangerous even if aimed at a barefaced prejudice; whilst there is much more than that in the objection of the managers.

I am, Sir, yours faithfully, IRISH CATHOLIC.

ORGANISTS v. ORGAN PLAYERS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Rosemead, Esher, Surrey.

SIR,—I respectfully, but strenuously protest against the wholesale condemnation (almost tinged with, or akin to vituperation) of organists, as set forth by Mr. Runciman in his article “Jubal's Sons”—in your issue of 19th ult. Undoubtedly and unfortunately, there exists a vast number of incompetent organ players, that are a shame and disgrace to the profession; but such incompetence and imperfection exist in all musical professions, whether vocal or instrumental, and an organist should not, in fairness, be slandered by Mr. Runciman or anyone else in such drastic and unwarranted terms. I plead “audi alteram partem”, as notwithstanding the unique and large experience of Mr. Runciman, I assert that there exists as large an army of good and talented organists in this country as can be desired. I believe it will be found that this assertion is no romance.

In Liverpool (wherein I have resided from youth to old age) I can name several local organists—amateur and professional—who rank supreme in that art, and comparable to any French or German artist. I acquired the standard of organ playing, from hearing for years the unsurpassed and perfect work of my late friend Mr. W. T. Best, organist to the Liverpool Corporation.

With vivid recollection of his masterly talent, it is unpardonable that almost equally gifted organists, as are known to me, should be judged and condemned in such a sweeping manner. I am curious to know how other amateurs like myself regard Mr. Runciman's opprobrium as affecting Chapel Royal—S. Paul's—Westminster—Chester and our other numerous cathedrals. Yours obediently, JOHN WILSON.

REVIEWS.

STILL ON THE EVE.

“Russia.” By Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace. 2 vols. New and Enlarged Edition, Revised, Reset, and in great part Rewritten. London: Cassell. 1905. 24s. net.

TURGUENIEV'S “On the Eve”, published in 1859, was a faithful reflex both socially and politically of the ideas then prevalent amongst the famous novelist's countrymen. Written in the atmosphere of coming reforms, the book was full of the spirit of the mind-tendencies floating over the leading groups of Russian patriots. However divergent their opinions upon other matters, all were agreed upon one point. In the emancipation of the serf they eagerly anticipated a mighty weapon for the wholesale regeneration of the people's life, thought and feeling. Nevertheless looking back dispassionately over the lapse of some fifty years, reactionaries and revolutionaries alike, have had to acknowledge that no such radical upheaval and regeneration have taken place. Inevitable as was the emancipation sooner or later, its consummation has hitherto remained a curiously isolated event, unproductive of any very definite sequence. The Russian peasant of to-day differs little from the peasant of the 'sixties; and at the present time many Russian political economists are considerably in doubt as to whether he has actually benefited from the most drastic of all Alexander II.'s internal reforms. In nine cases out of ten the individual most concerned will tell us that the old régime of serfdom was the better one of the two. Stating the matter roughly, it may be urged that the landowner has lost his labourer, the peasant his land, which together with the enormous increase of population and the consequent increase of taxation has led to the mutual impoverishment of both parties as well as to the neglect of the land itself. Added to these complexities, has arisen that other problem of the last twenty years or so—the very rapid growth of industrial and manufacturing interests bolstered by foreign capital and wholly disastrous to the future of agriculture in Russia. But in spite of all elements of chaos visible upon the surface, it cannot be gainsaid that Russia has been making steady progress. Her mental and moral development however has been clearly accomplished, upon the lines, not of iconoclasm, but of continuity and evolution. A hundred years ago or even earlier, the autocracy was declared to be doomed. By the ukase of emancipation it finally sounded its own funeral knell. So at least announced the extremists for reform. Yet the position of autocracy remains practically unaltered. To the bulk of the nation it is still the pivot upon which depends the weal of the country. Even if we grant that autocracy may have substantially weakened certain of its prerogatives it has done so, not by any liberties and privileges conferred upon the people, but rather by its own wilful encouragement of an alien bureaucracy. Those who dislike the autocratic power would dislike an aristocratic oligarchy infinitely more. “Nobles and people alike seem to hold instinctively the creed of the French philosopher, who thought it better to be governed by a lion of good family than by a hundred rats of his own species”. Another national and unique institution condemned by the optimistic predictors of a new era for Russia is still at work, the mir or village parliament.

It was generally thought that the communal system could not possibly survive the emancipation. An institution by which the rights of the individual were sacrificed to those of the community, must crumble away and disappear directly that individual became responsible and self-supporting, results, it was alleged, which his emancipation could not fail to produce upon the peasant. Russia presents us thus with the apparently paradoxical anomaly of a supreme autocracy which embodies the fundamental principle of individual power maintained at the expense of all communities within its rule, whilst to the community itself the individual is

merely a unit existing for the common good. Yet these two organisms, autocracy and commune, are the only two in the Russian polity which have never been antagonistic to each other; and this in spite of the wall which bureaucracy, jealous of power on either side, has set itself to build between Tsar and people. He who wishes to understand the present condition of affairs in Russia must keep these three component parts well in view, and must carefully follow the action and reaction of the one with the other. As a slight counterbalancing influence against bureaucracy we have, besides, the rise and growth of the *zemstvo*. It is therefore to those sections of Sir D. M. Wallace's book which deal at length with these various ingredients in Russia's internal government that we turn with the most interest. But of equally great importance are the chapters devoted to the revolutionary movement.

"In 1892", writes Sir D. M. Wallace, "the revolutionary movement, after passing through four stages, which I may call the academic, the propagandist, the insurrectionary, and the terrorist, had failed to accomplish its object. One of those who had taken an active part in it, and who, after spending two years in Siberia as a political exile, escaped and settled in Western Europe, could write thus: 'Our revolutionary movement is dead, and we who are still alive stand by the grave of our beautiful departed, and discuss what is wanting to her. One of us thinks that her nose should be improved; another suggests a change in her hair or her chin. We do not notice the essential, that what our beautiful departed wants is life; that it is not a matter of hair or eyebrows, but of a living soul, which formerly concealed all defects, and made her beautiful, and which now has flown away. However we may invent changes and improvements, all these things are utterly insignificant in comparison with what is really wanting, and what we cannot give; for who can breathe a living soul into a corpse?' In truth, the movement which I have endeavoured to describe was at an end; but another movement, having the same ultimate object, was coming into existence, and it constitutes one of the essential factors of the present situation". Then follows a lucid and masterly sketch of the various forces and undercurrents which could subsequently transform a number of innocent and legitimate trades unions into the formidable bands of rank political socialists who have wrought so much mischief in Russia during the last year.

A new and revised edition of Sir D. M. Wallace's well-known book could scarcely have appeared at a more opportune moment. The author has been an eyewitness of developments to which he has given some thirty-five years' close study. He is at pains to set before us the diverse views both for and against autocracy, bureaucracy, the *mir* &c., communicated by competent men of every class, with whom he has had such ample opportunities of conversing. It is noticeable however that he refrains throughout from expressing the personal opinions which he himself cannot fail to have formed, and which would naturally have been of weight from a man of his intimate knowledge.

This is all the more regrettable, since it deprives Sir D. M. Wallace's pages of a certain note of conviction. Russia is still on the eve. Whether she be any nearer the millennium dreamed of by Turgueniev and his colleagues, who shall decide? One fact remains obvious. Whatever may be the final trend of the many issues now at conflict in her central government, a Western constitution—a government upon parliamentary lines offers no efficacious solution to her difficulties. With us party government resolves itself into the supremacy of one or other of two rival political camps. Parliamentary legislation for Russia would at once bring into action at least a dozen well-defined political parties, each with its own programme, but whose constituents, presumably the peasants (the one and only homogeneous element in the country) would remain absolutely indifferent to any legislation outside their own communes.

THE PLÉIADE.

"Histoire de la littérature française classique, 1515-1830." Tome Premier, 1515-1595. Deuxième Partie. La Pléiade. Paris: Delagrave. 1905. 2s.

IN this, the second part of the first volume of the history of classical French literature, M. Brunetière sketches the history of the Pléiade. He traces the origin of the movement; he analyses the poetical theory and the aims of the school; he reviews briefly the work of Ronsard, Du Bellay, Baif, Desportes, Du Bartas, and Bertaut. He sums up the work of the Pléiade; its achievement and its failure; and the causes of its failure and of its successes. The object of Ronsard and his disciples was not to reform the French language but to raise its diapason several tones higher. It cannot be said that they altogether failed to do this; that they did not altogether succeed was due to the obstacles which the language itself presented, to their choice of models, and to their conception of art.

M. Brunetière attributes to adverse circumstances the failure of the Pléiade to do for the French language what Dante did for Italian. He doubts whether even Dante, had he been born in the sixteenth century in France, would have been able to achieve this. The chief cause of the weakness of the Pléiade is that they derived their inspiration from classical models, and more especially from the Alexandrine poets, instead of from human nature. The Pléiade succeeded in achieving the classical ideal as far as form was concerned; they failed in regard to the fundamental matter without which form is valueless. Lionardo da Vinci in his reflections points out that as soon as an artist ceases to imitate Nature but turns for his inspiration to the work of other artists he is initiating a stage of decadence. Yet it cannot be said that Ronsard and his followers were decadents; on the contrary they were misguided pioneers.

Summing up Ronsard's achievement M. Brunetière states that he determined for two hundred and fifty years the range and scope of classical poetry. At the same time he created in the Alexandrine, which he handled with such an unrivalled mastery, the instrument necessary for the exploration of the newly opened dominion. French "classicism" is to be found in its entirety in the work of Ronsard; that it did not at once leap into life is due to the disciples of Ronsard who obstinately adhered to a slavish imitation of classical models; "models" is indeed too comprehensive a word; it is their adherence to verbal classical forms, their grotesque experiments in Latin metres and "quantity" which caused them to act like a dam on the current which Ronsard had set flowing.

Ronsard initiated practically all the modern forms of French verse. Traces of his influence can be found in Corneille as well as in Victor Hugo. M. Brunetière praises him also highly for a quality which although it is less likely to strike English readers is highly valued by the French. "On ne délirera pas en vers français", he says. "Neither enthusiasm of inspiration nor perfection of form will authorise the poet to be lacking in common sense." Some poets of the French modern school have proved that in spite of this it is perfectly possible to "délirer" in French verse and to write poems that are redeemed by no shadow or gleam of anything approaching common sense. But M. Brunetière would probably not condescend to be aware of the existence of these writers. Yet the M. Brunetière of four hundred years hence will probably deal with them in all patience and seriousness.

M. Brunetière's book is scholarly and erudite. It is perfectly devoid of any kind of charm or attractive flavour; and one fancies that if it should fall into Ronsard's hands in the shadowy dominions among "les ombres mysteuses" it will cause him probably to yawn, scholar as he is. M. Brunetière is a brilliant and eloquent lecturer, and, as often happens, his written speech is less persuasive than his oral discourse. There is a studied classicism in his style; one feels that he is haunted by the terror of seeming modern. Yet it is to this aversion from the things that are that he attributes the comparative failure of the Pléiade. As to M. Brunetière's attitude and the quality of his ideas and

mind, the tone is academic throughout. The unkind will say pedantic. Here is an instance of his criticism. In speaking of Ronsard's exquisite sonnet to Helen beginning: "Quand vous serez bien vieille", M. Brunetière says that it is doubtful compliment and in bad taste to recall to a beautiful woman that her beauty is fugitive and that it is not "honnête" to invite her to gather the rosebuds while she may. This is enough to make Ronsard turn in his grave; but the sentence in which M. Brunetière points out Ronsard's predilection for the scale of yellow and gold, and says that if ever there were in French literature "vers dorés" they were his, will perhaps appease Ronsard's outraged spirit.

A LITERARY CHATTERBOX.

"Talks in a Library with Laurence Hutton." Recorded by Isabel Moore. London. Putnam's. 1905. 10s. 6d. net.

MR. HUTTON uses, if he does not abuse, the privilege of advanced years; he is somewhat diffuse and he lets his hobbies gallop away with him, but he is a lively, entertaining, and instructive companion. He had Boswell's facility for making the acquaintance of eminent men; he had Boswell's retentive memory for "good talk", with something of Boswell's indifference to susceptibility. Like Boswell, he was a clubbable man, and the clubs to which he belonged were in Bohemia or over the Bohemian borders. The stage was his passion: he wrote the history of actors, and one of his peculiar idiosyncrasies was the collecting of theatre bills. But what more immediately concerns the reader of the library talks is the cleverness with which he "carries" a good story. The book is rich in stories, and if he sometimes points a moral we suspect he can often adorn a tale. At least there is a superabundance of odd coincidences and a marvellous number of strange meetings, intermingled with many curious and interesting facts. Nor is his own story the least remarkable. The son of an affluent man, for his ample fortune seems to have come to him by inheritance rather than by authorship, his father piqued his juvenile pride by reproaching him with his indifferent use of a costly education. From that day, though we are told rather ambiguously that he did not refuse the paternal hospitality, he kept himself. For many years he was an errand boy, or a humble subordinate in a hop warehouse. He dined like David Copperfield for a few cents with carmen, porters, and other errand boys. It was only when the hop firm collapsed that he tried writing. Then like Copperfield, or Dickens, he climbed the ladder till he found himself landed in a luxurious mansion at Princeton, the proprietor of a rare collection of literary curios, the friend of all that was famous in letters and the patron of struggling genius. Oddly enough, the first article he published was a daring and original criticism of Dickens as a reader, though he was an enthusiastic admirer of the novelist. He was disillusioned as many other people had been by the creator's interpretation of his creations. Toots was not his Toots, Mr. Micawber his Micawber. And a similar independence of criticism pervades his notices of his numerous literary friends and contemporaries.

But one of his charms is that these notices are always kindly: even when there is a slight infusion of acid, there is no gall in the diluted vinegar. Among the actors especially, a much maligned class, he delights to dwell on their generous actions, and wonderful indeed are the instances he gives of the munificence of Henry Irving and Edwin Booth. His brief biographies of his special friends or favourites are touched off with the tenderness of warm affection and enlivened by endless anecdote and reminiscence. Edwin Booth is one example, and the less-known John Fiske is another. For especially in the last of the chapters we are introduced to Americans whose celebrity beyond the Atlantic may be great, but whose fame has scarcely spread to the older continent.

Mr. Hutton himself was of no country, or rather of several. American by birth, he was almost English by

predilection and Scottish by descent. One of the illustrations is the picturesque old homestead of the Huttons in the "Kingdom of Fife", and he claims ancestral kindred with Old Mortality, a cousin of his maternal grandfather. Hutton wrote many books and innumerable articles, but he showed his attachment to the old country by the time and trouble he bestowed on his "Landmarks of London", which was literally a labour, although a labour of love. Three years, more or less, he devoted to identifying the sites and scenes associated with our illustrious men of letters. His enthusiasm sometimes outran his courtesy, as when he broke the vials of his wrath on the good rector of Edmonton, who could not point out the graves of Charles and Mary Lamb. While he still lingered on a fruitless search, the rector came back penitent, apologetic and better informed. We have alluded to his hard hobby-riding. Anything autographic interested him as much as theatre bills, but his chief craze was death-masks. He must have made an almost unrivalled collection, more or less authentic, of moulds from the faces of the famous dead. The very doubt as to authenticity was a source of pleasure, for it sent him in ceaseless quests of anything that would tend to verification. To these death-masks three gruesome chapters are devoted, and we should not have been sorry had they been severely compressed. One thing we like much is his frank avowal of his favourite taste in books. There is none of that popular humbug about "the best books". What he revelled in were old favourites, Scott, Cooper, Marryat, Dumas, Thackeray and Dickens.

EGYPT IN DECLINE.

"A History of Egypt from the XIXth to the XXXth Dynasties." By W. M. Flinders Petrie. London: Methuen. 1905. 6s.

THIS is a new edition of the third volume of Professor Petrie's well-known "History of Egypt". From certain points of view it is practically a new work. Since the book was originally published excavation and discovery in Egypt have been going on at a rapid pace, and masses of fresh material and information have been pouring in. Nowhere have the new facts been more abundant than in the period covered by the present volume. And as the plan of the work requires every detail to be recorded, and every reference given in full, some idea may be formed of the amount of addition and recasting needed to bring it up to date, as well as of the labour involved in revising it. As the author remarks in his preface, where more than two hundred officials have to be registered in a single reign some weeks of research are necessary before a final list of their monuments can be made.

The translations given in the text have been edited by the competent pen of Dr. Walker; the excellence of the photographs interspersed throughout the volume is guaranteed by their being supervised by Professor Petrie himself. Maps have been added to illustrate the scenes of the campaigns of the Egyptian kings or the home of the marauders who invaded their kingdom, and, though we cannot always agree with the geographical identifications proposed in them, they help the reader to understand the text and follow the course of the history. Professor Petrie's chronology is now well known and established, and in the period to which his present volume is devoted the possibilities of error in it are limited to a few years. From the rise of the Eighteenth Dynasty onwards Egyptian chronology is fairly certain. At the same time it is difficult to see how the date assigned to "the Heretic King", and therefore to the accession of the Nineteenth Dynasty, can be made to harmonise with that of the contemporary rulers of Assyria and Babylonia who can hardly be brought down later than B.C. 1400.

Professor Petrie has returned to the old theory of Birch and Brugsch which saw in the Twenty-second Dynasty a line of princes who had come from the lands of the Tigris and Euphrates. It is always dangerous to argue from proper names when we do not know their

meaning or origin, and it is upon the proper names and their supposed equivalents that the whole theory is built. But though Sheshenq or Shishak might be the Babylonian Susanqu "the Susian", and Takelat could be a mutilated Assyrian Tukulti-Ninib or Tukulti-pal-esarra, there are insuperable philological objections to connecting Uasarkon with Sargon, and nothing like Nemareth—once naturally imagined to be the Nimrod of the Old Testament—is to be found in the cuneiform inscriptions. Considering the proper names which are associated with those of Sheshenq and Uasarkon on certain private monuments, the hypothesis which makes them Libyan is the more probable.

It goes without saying that the book is full of ingenious combinations and suggestions. It would not be Professor Petrie's if it were not so. One of the most ingenious is that which explains away the mysterious Zet who appears as a king of the Twenty-third Dynasty in one of the copies of the Manethonian list of kings. Zet is supposed to be a corruption of the Greek letters which denote the number 387, this being roughly the number of years intervening between the end of the Ramesside dynasties and the rise of the Saite power according to Professor Petrie's chronology. M. Legrain, however, has lately shown that the statues discovered by him under the floor of the temple of Karnak oblige us to make the Twenty-third and Twenty-second Dynasties contemporaneous; Petubastes, who represents the Twenty-third Dynasty, having intervened between Uasarkon II. and Uasarkon III. of the Twenty-second. Consequently there is room for a good many kings whom their fellow-citizens at Tanis may have reckoned to belong to a Twenty-third Dynasty, though their names are not found elsewhere on the monuments of Egypt.

Perhaps the most interesting point about this third volume of Egyptian history is that it illustrates one of those periods of decline when without any definite cause the general culture of the world seems to undergo a sudden decay; no great men appear upon the stage, and a common paralysis affects the energy and vigour of civilised mankind. With the Nineteenth Dynasty the heroic age of Egypt came to an end, for the revival under the Saïtes of the Twenty-sixth some six centuries later was artificial and antiquarian. But it was not Egypt alone which thus passed under eclipse. Babylonia, once the dominant State of Western Asia, was equally decadent, and, as we have lately learnt from the excavations in Crete, the brilliant civilisation of the so-called Mycænean age passed away about the same time. It is true that in Assyria Tiglath-pileser I. restored for a moment the old prestige of the Euphratean powers, and that in Israel David founded a short-lived empire, but in each case the display of energy was spasmodic only and neither Tiglath-pileser nor David had any successor. It was not until the middle of the ninth century that the militarism of Assyria again awoke, and heralded the revival of a new epoch of activity first on the military and then on the artistic and intellectual side. Like the individual, civilised humanity also seems to need from time to time its periods of rest and stagnation.

Of the merits of Professor Petrie's work we have no occasion to speak. His Egyptian History has long been in the hands of the historical student and is the indispensable companion of everyone who is interested in the ancient history of the land of the Nile. We may not always assent to his conclusions and combinations, but the archaeological facts on which they are founded are stated without omission or bias, and the conclusions themselves are often brilliant, usually ingenious and always stimulating.

OUTLINES OF THE SPREAD OF HELLENISM.

"The Progress of Hellenism in Alexander's Empire."
By Dr. J. P. Mahaffy. London: Unwin. 1905. 5s.

THAT an eminent scholar should occasionally deliver lectures on his own subject is without doubt a good and useful practice which deserves to be encouraged. It is good for the scholar, inasmuch as he is thereby compelled to arrange the matter of his knowledge

and strike out clear general principles which alone can give meaning and coherence to the mass of detail; and it is useful for his hearers who presumably are improved by acquiring fresh information or by seeing familiar facts in unfamiliar lights. So far, at least, all are agreed, and when Dr. Mahaffy, of Dublin, undertakes to edify a Chicago audience by expounding his views on the progress of Hellenism in Alexander's empire, the world of culture unanimously applauds. It is another matter, however, when the learned lecturer goes on to publish his remarks. For it by no means follows that a good course of lectures will make a good book, or that the qualities which delight us in a class-room will equally win our approbation when exemplified in a treatise that professes to be a serious contribution to historical studies. On the contrary, it may be taken as a general rule that oral discourses are better left unpublished, unless they are either unusually brilliant or freely supplemented with additional matter.

Now Dr. Mahaffy delivered six interesting lectures, for which, it is to be hoped, the students of the University of Chicago are sufficiently grateful. But it must be confessed that the slender volume, in which these same lectures are printed, is not satisfactory. It is somewhat difficult to know how to characterise the book. It is not, of course, a history or a complete historical survey; for what mortal man could deal adequately with such a subject as the diffusion of Greek culture through Macedonia and the Nearer East within the limit of less than one hundred and fifty pages? Nor is it a mere compendium, an arrangement of facts and dates. Perhaps it may best be described as a collection of Dr. Mahaffy's personal opinions on various aspects of Hellenism, delivered with some sententiousness and, for the most part, unsupported by references or arguments. Such a collection doubtless has a value, and Dr. Mahaffy expresses the hope that his book will prove useful both to the general reader and to the specialist, to the classical scholar and also to the student or teacher of Christianity. Perhaps it will: yet misgivings will arise that this little book is not destined to contribute greatly to the enlightenment of the race.

Dr. Mahaffy's survey of the later Greek culture is completed in six chapters. The first deals with Xenophon, described as the precursor of Hellenism; the second with Macedonia and Greece, the third with Egypt and the fourth with Syria. The last two are devoted to general reflections on Hellenism and to an estimate of Hellenistic influences on Christianity.

In the first lecture the author makes a good point. There can be no question that the later and cosmopolitan Hellenism is older than the reign of Alexander, the epoch from which it is usually dated. In reality, as Dr. Mahaffy points out, it commences "the moment that Athens ceased to be the dominant centre of Greece in politics as well as in letters". Xenophon may well be taken as its representative—the Attic bee who gathered honey "not merely from the thyme of Attica and the cistus of the Peloponnese, but from the rose gardens of Persia and the sunflowers of Babylonia". A recent writer has rather unkindly designated Xenophon as "a dilettante in Goethe's sense of the word", that is to say, a man who is for ever undertaking tasks for which he is not thoroughly equipped. But if Xenophon was something of a charlatan, he was at least a thorough man of the world, a person of broad views and all-round capacities, with intelligence enough to learn from his neighbours. As the first really cosmopolitan Greek, the one to foreshadow the expansion of Hellenic influence and culture beyond its early and restricted home, he is of no slight importance for the history of the "silver age".

On Hellenism in Egypt Dr. Mahaffy has some interesting remarks. We would gladly have heard more about Alexandria, the wonderful city with its mixed population of Jews, Macedonians, Egyptians and Greeks, its handsome colonnaded streets in which at night the sun was "distributed in small change" by the lamps, its botanical and zoological gardens and its famous library. To few cities do we owe a greater debt. From Alexandria comes the Greek version of the Old Testament, from Alexandria Neo-Platonism, from Alexandria the momentous development of pure mathe-

matics and mechanics, from Alexandria the correct texts of the Greek classics, from Alexandria the love-novel, and from Alexandria the idylls of Theocritus. To trace the influence of the Hellenism of Alexandria on modern European thought and literature would be a fascinating study, and it is to be regretted that a competent scholar like Dr. Mahaffy did not confine himself to some such task as this, instead of attempting a survey of such wide range.

The lectures on "Macedonia and Greece" and on "Syria" are thin; and that on the influences of Hellenism on Christianity is disappointing. Here Dr. Mahaffy, with the air of one suggesting new ideas, reiterates truths with which theologians have been familiar for the last fifty years. Surely very few people would now be inclined to deny that Greek language and thought profoundly affected the early development of Christian doctrine. At the same time Dr. Mahaffy appears to under-estimate the influence of Aramaic on Christian language and ideas, while he undoubtedly over-estimates the influence of Stoicism on S. Paul. His endeavour to trace a relation between ancient Stoicism and the various forms of Protestantism in Germany, Scotland and elsewhere is ingenious enough, but it is certainly not convincing.

The best chapter in the book, perhaps, is that which contains the general reflections on Hellenism. Dr. Mahaffy has thought much upon the subject, and he expresses his views with freshness and vigour. His vindication of the later sculpture may be quoted as an example of his style. "First of all let us reduce to its proper value the vulgar phrase which assigns to Greek art a golden and a silver age. The life of Alexander was supposed to be the dividing line. Lysippus, the sculptor, who had the privilege of reproducing the king's form, was the last of the real masters. Among the many falsehoods I was taught about Greek art when I was young, that was one of the most flagrant. Go now to the Louvre in Paris, and walk through that famous collection of Greek and Græco-Roman sculpture. Two masterpieces will for ever stand out from the rest in your memory. The first is the Niké of Samothrace, that figure of victory that once stood on a marble prow heralding the success of King Demetrius the Besieger with her trumpet. The other, in the place of honour in its gallery, surrounded by a crowd whose comments admiration is wont to hush, is the Venus of Melos. Both are works of the so-called silver age—one of them as late as the Roman domination of Greece. Need I add that at Rome the very inferior Apollo Belvedere and the Laocoön, truly works of the silver age, yet have fascinated centuries of men ever since the Renaissance?"

Dr. Mahaffy has made a mistake in attempting to deal in so small a compass with so vast a question as the spread of Hellenism. But if he will be persuaded to supply a real want and provide us with a thorough and systematic study of this subject, he may be assured of the gratitude of all English students of Greek history.

NOVELS.

"The Ford." By Arthur E. J. Legge. London: Lane. 1905. 6s.

If you hate a man and love his wife, your relations to their son may become complicated. That seems to be the thesis of "The Ford", which, for the rest, is in some respects an attractive novel. Mr. Legge's characters have an air of breeding for which we vainly seek in the well-born figures of the average Society novel, and his heroine has individuality. The ford in question connects the lands of an old-fashioned peer with those of a new soap-boiler, and its use gives cause for a feud between the houses. On this basis it is clear that a love affair between the millionaire's son and the peer's daughter is, as doctors say, indicated. But the peer's middle-aged cousin and heir, Paul Gleddayne, unwittingly introduces complications. He had loved the soap-boiler's wife, and Mr. Legge very frankly tells us that Ralph Harrold, the jeune premier, might have been Paul Gleddayne's son, though he happens not to be. Paul at any rate is very fond of

him for his dead mother's sake, and is distressed to find himself standing in the young man's way alike in politics and love. Unintentionally, however, he frees him from what might have been a dangerous entanglement: Ralph nearly falls a victim to a siren, but discovers in time that the versatile Paul had preceded him in her easy affections. There is a pervasive air of marital infidelity about the book which should make it popular. Mr. Legge labours his points unnecessarily, and might with advantage refrain from working up to very obvious epigrams. The hero's East-End experiences promise some entertainment, but the author does not linger upon them.

"My Friend the Chauffeur." By C. N. and A. M. Williamson. London: Methuen. 1905. 6s.

There is a certain charm and pleasantness in this work, which inclines one to approbation, though, truth to tell, there is but little solid merit in it. It shows a real sense of humour of a feminine kind. Enthusiastic motorists will probably enjoy this new "motor-car" story, with its thrilling events of dusty carburettors, broken brakes, and change-speed levers, stopped-up reservoirs, and the exciting rivalries between a Panhard and a Festa, and their respective owners. The trip this time is from Monte Carlo through Northern Italy to Dalmatia, and incidentally a great deal of guide-book information is imparted, layers of description alternating with the excitements of the plot. The sympathies of the authors in the matter of nationality are easily perceived, the hero is an Irishman, the heroine an American, while the villain is of course a "foreigner", an Austrian this time. It is all very naïve and conventional, the heiress and the nobleman each believing the other to be of humble station, the abduction and rescue and so on, but there are elements of some originality in the story, the American girl disguised as an "enfant terrible" is a fresh and amusing character, and the numerous photographs of scenery are pretty.

"The Queen's Man." By Eleanor C. Price. London: Constable. 1905. 6s.

"The Queen's Man" is a fairly good historical novel, dealing with the period of the Wars of the Roses. The plot and characters are of the conventional type which we have learnt to expect in books of this kind, the worthy old squire, the heroine for love of whom men are impelled to all kinds of daring deeds, noble and otherwise, the evil beautiful woman of dark designs, the hero, villain, and semi-villain, the fights, and escapes and misunderstandings, all the paraphernalia of historic romance are set forth very creditably with due attention to accuracy, picturesque effect, appropriate language, and with as few improbabilities as may be. Yet the result is somewhat flat and dull. The best work done by women, with a very few exceptions, is the outcome of what they have experienced, not of what they have read or imagined. But there is no harm in "The Queen's Man"; it is unpretentious and unaffected, and is quite suitable for the reading of young girls.

"The House on the River." By Florence Warden. London: Unwin. 1905. 6s.

The best that can be said for "The House on the River" is that it affords at a somewhat high price an hour's mystification to the lovers of sensational fiction. Such readers no doubt will not be troubled by the utter improbability of the incidents and characters, nor annoyed by vulgarities of style and crudities of description, and will be quite satisfied with the fare supplied by the ingenious author of that old favourite "The House on the Marsh". The enticing cover, with its scarlet house, lurid sky, ghastly black trees, and purple river streaked suggestively with crimson, is of equal artistic merit with its melodramatic contents, which in former days would have been put forth in the humbler, more suitable form of the "shilling shocker".

NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"College of St. Leonards." By John Herkless and Robert Hannay. London: Blackwood. 1905. 7s. 6d. net.

This book is divided into two parts, the work of two authors, and we have formed the impression that they did not collate essays before publication. The intention we apprehend was that Mr. Herkless should write a history of the College of St. Leonards, and that Mr. Hannay should edit its charters. Mr. Herkless has devoted great industry to his undertaking, and has apparently noted every reference to the college to be found in the printed records and chartularies. The result is a valuable but rather dry history of a hospital for the reception of pilgrims to S. Andrews, managed by and the property of thirteen Culdees, who had as endowment one-seventh of the offerings of the altar of their church. The hospital was part of the possessions transferred from Culdees to canons regular in the twelfth century, and early in the thirteenth the Archbishop of S. Andrews practically suppressed it, constituting in its stead a college of poor clerks. This he did to "keep afloat the barque of Peter", but before the century had half expired, the College was strenuously attempting to sink that barque. The usual result in due time followed; the College was dissolved by the sale of the buildings, and the ancient church of S. Leonards was consigned to ruin. Dr. Johnson visited the spot, and wrote some caustic sentences on a nation which, while fast developing in wealth, suffered its universities to moulder to dust. The charters edited by Mr. Hannay are not of antiquarian interest, reaching as they do to the sixteenth century. We cannot but suspect that the University must possess important early deeds relating to the lands granted by and before King David, also subsequent precepts of Clare Constat and Tacks. The sixteenth-century statutes and visitations are of value principally to students of the Reformation period. On the whole our opinion is that the University has done well to publish the book. And while we regret that it contains no ancient deeds, we recollect that the necessary expenditure of printing any of these might be considerable, with little prospect of a satisfactory sale. The volume is perhaps more likely to appeal to past students of S. Andrews in its present form.

"Through Town and Jungle." By W. H. Workman and Fanny B. Workman. London: Unwin. 1905. 21s. net.

In theory nothing could be more delightful than such tours as Dr. and Mrs. Workman have recorded in this volume. To wander on a bicycle through rural India—the India of the village and the temple; the jungle and the roadside bazar—to visit strange ruins and remote scenes which no European save some stray official ever sees; carrying with one the bare necessities of life and emerging every few days at some rendezvous to be met by servants and luggage. What could be more attractive? And yet the narrative does not quite justify one's expectations. There is too much in evidence of the discomforts of rough travel, bad food or none, bad roads or none, all the troubles of a hot and tiresome world, full of punctures. In spite of their unusual powers of endurance these seasoned travellers found a good deal to grumble about, from bad Dak bungalows to the want of a railway into Kashmir. They even go so far as to find fault with the Taj and the Grand Trunk Road, an irreverence as grave as that of a sailor who would speak disrespectfully of the Equator. Among many observations which display keen insight a curious expression here and there emerges. Buddhism, that mildest of creeds, is described as a "virile" religion. To anyone who knew him there must seem something strangely incongruous in the description of the learned and saintly old anchorite of Benares as a person of "gentlemanly instincts". It is extraordinary how observant travellers could carefully examine the fortress at Gwalior as they did and yet describe it as still an "English garrisoned fort", when nearly twenty years ago it was made over to Sindhia in exchange for the Jhansi fortress. The book is rich in admirable illustrations. But perhaps a lady tourist with a bicycle appears a little too often in the foreground of the Eastern antiquities.

"A Wanderer in Holland." By E. V. Lucas. London: Methuen. 1905. 6s.

The combination of Mr. Lucas as narrator with Mr. Herbert Marshall as illustrator has given us a charming volume. The reproduction of the artist's water-colour sketches is much more successful than is often the case in illustrated works of this nature; they do not reappear as mere smudges of crude colour as we have seen them elsewhere. Then it was a happy idea to intersperse photographs of some of the more famous Dutch pictures. Mr. Lucas is an admirable guide and visitors to Holland could not have a more agreeable commentator on their travels past or future. As we might have expected from his record, he neither bores nor dogmatizes but his book is full of information and not a little wise reflection. He could not have found a more appropriate scene for the employment of his pen, for the Dutch have a vast amount of romance underlying an extremely matter-of-fact appearance. Mr. Lucas

does not forget that the political philosopher may have some lessons to teach from the stagnant prosperity of modern Holland. Comparing Franz Hals' "Arquebusiers" with their descendants he says "The air of masterful recklessness has gone. Hals had painted conquerors, or at any rate warriors for their country; these coffee drinkers are meditating profit and loss. Where once was authority is now calculation." "There but for the grace of God goes England" is that he asks "a reasonable utterance?" We are bound to say we think it very reasonable, and the Englishman at his leisure may well ponder on the situation created by overmuch prosperity and the reluctance thereby engendered to undertake the burdens and discomforts of empire. Mr. Lucas not only abounds in wise and quaint comments himself but is the cause of our remembering the wisdom of others. He interpolates appropriate passages from Motley and others which we are glad to have at hand and he does it with more skill than Hare and his followers, who often know what we want but dump their quotations upon us with a crudity that suggests the text-book. Mr. Lucas' volume is not merely a guide but a book to keep and read again with enjoyment when it shall have served its primary object.

"The Story of Venice." By Thomas Okey. Illustrated by Nelly Erichsen. London: Dent. 1905. 4s. 6d. net.

The literature of travel grows in these days like a rank weed, and the multiplication of aids to the tourists threatens to defeat its end by rousing an active spirit of impatience with them all. They are thrust on the intending traveller's attention in his bookshop with as much urgency as the services of the clamorous guides who clog his steps at Rome or Pozzuoli, exciting in the end an obstinate determination to misunderstand everything rather than see it with the eyes and in the company of the greedy rascals whose glib assurances are so unutterable a nuisance. And indeed the profitable hours which any man spends in Venice or in Rome are those in which he casts aside his manuals, calls up in memory whatever shreds of historical knowledge he may have left, and walks about using his own eyes. Yet as among the crowd of worthless guides there may be a quiet, modest fellow who has meditated much and is qualified to be a good companion, so from time to time a book is put forth like that which Mr. Okey has produced, the fruit of much reading and of many journeys, the outcome of long familiarity not only with the seagirt city, but with Italy and with Italian life as a whole. Such a book is a boon to many men, who will find it concise but not perfunctory, learned but never dull. Joint author with Mr. Bulton King of "Italy of To-day", Mr. Okey was qualified to excel where many have failed. In no point does he show more judgment than in abstaining from the endeavour to depict in words the still wondrous beauty which led Aretino gazing from his balcony one May evening three centuries ago and more to fling down his pen and break off his letter to the greatest of all painters with the despairing cry "O Titian, why art thou not here now?" Mr. Okey has not found a modern Titian to supplement the limits of his own art, but he has discovered Miss Erichsen, whose skilful pencil has caught the very grace of Venetian life and architecture.

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FRENCH SCHOOLBOOKS.

- "The Public School French Grammar." Based upon the "Grammaire Française" of Auguste Brachet. Part II. Syntax. By E. Janau and A. Ludwig. London: Hachette. 1905. 5s.
- "The Essentials of French Grammar." By Alfred Barriball. London: Ralf, Holland. 1905. 3s. 6d. net.
- "A Practical French Grammar." By F. W. Aveling. London: Swan Sonnenschein. 1905.
- "Grammaire Française sur la méthode inductive." Par W. G. Hartog. London: Rivington. 1905. 3s. 6d.

The Public School French Grammar is based on the "Grammaire Française" of M. Brachet, but claims to be a new work. It would have been far better if the joint editors had definitely cut themselves adrift from Brachet and composed a work which was solely and exclusively meant to meet the requirements of the English pupil. These re-adaptations of books written for foreigners are never a complete success. In the present case the book is lumbered up with a certain amount of old-fashioned scholasticism of which our modern grammars are slowly purging themselves. It is really an anachronism to find in a supposed modern grammar written for modern requirements all the old-fashioned jargon about catachresis and other semi-barbarous terms, mere survivals of the mediæval mania for classification. We dislike also the dogmatic condemnation of certain phrases and expressions which often have excellent authority for them. No doubt the beginner should not be burdened with exceptions, but this book of 620 pages is evidently meant to be exhaustive and the pupil who uses it should be permitted to see behind the scenes, if only to prevent his adopting a false and dogmatic view on questions about which it may be said "grammatici certant". To give an instance of what we mean, we would compare the judicial attitude adopted by Mr. Clark in his well-known School Grammar of Modern French with the somewhat cut and dried, not to say doctrinaire, treatment of the joint editors. We presume that the book is mainly meant for reference. One can scarcely imagine a time table which allowed of a complete study of its 620 pages. Far and away the best part of this book is its appendices, especially those on synonyms, the complement of adjectives and the government of verbs. If these could be detached and published separately, they would form a book of which it might emphatically be said the half is more than the whole. "The Essentials of French Grammar" seems to contain the essentials for passing second-rate examinations more than anything else. The rules appear often to have no philosophic value but are at best mere rules of thumb; sometimes they do not even amount to that. What can the possible value be of the following rule? "E_n may be followed by the article only when the latter is in the singular number, and also when the vowel of the article is elided because preceding a vowel or silent *h*." Mr. Barriball may congratulate himself on having defined the difference between Tweedledum and Tweedledee. Among the "essentials" we note the information that the plural "ciels" may mean "covers of quarries". Ciel! There is an old-fashioned appendix on pronunciation in which *bonne* is given as "bun", *vingt* as "vang". When will our would-be grammarians boldly adopt the phonetic script? Mr. Aveling's Grammar is also on antiquated lines. He spares us indeed the "covers of quarries" though inflicting on us "nopals" (cochineal fig trees). He has a curious notion about the numbers from "vingt-deux" to "vingt-neuf", to the effect that *g* is mute in these numbers but *z* is heard. Are we to imagine then that *g* is sounded in "vingt" and "vingt et un"? He gives "les ouis" as the plural of "oui" used as a noun. "Anglais" (adj.) is spelt with a capital letter. We note also "six francs le mètre" (sic). Mr. Hartog's Grammaire Française is in many ways a model of what to copy, as the books reviewed above contain features which were best avoided. His grammar is written entirely in French for English boys only. The number of exceptions is kept down to a minimum and what is still more important the rules are given as far as possible inductively. It is to books like this we must look for raising the standard of French in England.

- "Leçons Françaises. Géographie et Histoire." By W. Mansfield Poole and M. Becker. London: Blackie. 1905. 2s. 6d. net.
- Oxford Modern French Series. Edited by Leon Delbos. (1) "Une Haine à Bord." Edited by R. E. A. Chessex. 3s. (2) "Voyage en Espagne." By T. Gautier. Edited by G. Goodridge. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press. 1905.
- "Qu'est-ce que cela veut dire!" Par H. P. Sllgo de Poltronies. London: Sands. 3s. 6d. net.

Messrs. Poole and Becker's reader in French history and geography is to be warmly commended. The subject-matter is not only interesting but well illustrated and the whole is calculated to add an air of reality to the teaching of French in whatever class the book is used. The Clarendon Press are to be congratulated on their "Modern French Series". It is an attempt to provide reading material of a thoroughly literary kind in our higher forms. There is a distinct danger to-day for teachers to read in class second-rate novels. One cannot

too strongly insist that the French read in the upper classes, whether classical or modern, should be of one quality only, the best. Of the two books under review Gautier's is too well known to need commendation and the other is a very interesting sea yarn by an author who knows his sea dogs as well as Jean Nibot or Pierre Loti. A word of praise must also be accorded for the manner in which the notes have been kept down to the simple function of explaining the text. "Qu'est-ce que cela veut dire?" is a riddle without an answer. The author has formed an interesting collection of French expressions and Gallicisms, but he has deprived it of most of the use it might have had by the arbitrary arrangement of the phrases, and the lack of any kind of comment or explanation.

THE SEPTEMBER REVIEWS.

Peace came too late to admit of discussion in the September Reviews. The "Monthly" has an article by M. L. Villari on "The Diplomatic Balance-sheet of the War" written on the assumption that the conflict was at an end. He considers that the only condition on which the future can be faced with equanimity is that the Anglo-Franco-Italian understanding on the one hand, and the Anglo-Japanese alliance on the other "be consolidated and extended, and the friendly action of the United States assured, together with that of the New Russia, which, Phoenix-like, is arising on the ashes of the old Muscovite bureaucracy". M. Delafosse in the "National" writing on French foreign policy goes even further and suggests a new alliance which shall include England, France, Russia, Japan, Italy and possibly the United States. Such an alliance would be frankly anti-German. Isolation could only aggravate the forces in Germany which make for international dissension. Sir H. H. Johnston's speculations in the "Fortnightly" as to the legitimate expansion of Germany acquire new interest in view of these proposals. He thinks the British Empire has nearly reached its limits, that France may find her true Imperial mission in civilising Morocco, Tunis, Madagascar and Indo-China, that Russia will be the great civilising Power of Northern Asia and that Germany with her "56 millions of the best educated, most intelligent, warlike and thrifty people in Europe, if not the world" will become the controlling member of a league or federation stretching from Hamburg and Holstein to Trieste, Constantinople and the Euphrates Valley. It is a large programme, but Sir H. H. Johnston is not at all sure some of his readers may not live to see William II. or Frederick IV. crowned in S. Sofia Emperor of the Nearer East. Meantime Mr. Archibald Hurd writing also in the "Fortnightly" says that in the contest for naval advantage Great Britain has won and must regard the consequent irritation in Germany with forbearance hoping for the day "when the rulers of the German Empire will realise that the British people have a well-founded admiration for the German army and navy". In the "Nineteenth Century" Professor A. Vambéry dissents from the view that England has much to fear from Russia on the Indian frontier even after her defeats in the Far East, and the Aga Khan makes a plea for the neutral-zone policy. He does not want Russia to become a neighbour of India, nor Russian railway lines to be linked up with Indian. He fears Russian intriguers, some of whom have already "promised the establishment of a thousand native dynasties". But "England, in order to enforce the policy of a neutral zone, must herself observe the self-denying ordinance, and not allow herself to be led by the advocates of a forward policy, or those officers who are tired of Afghan arrogance and Persian and Chinese pusillanimity, into acquiring a predominant position in any part of the neutral zone under one pretext or another".

Church and State in France are the subject of three articles in the reviews, by M. Emile Combes himself in the "Independent," by M. Eugène Tavernier in the "Fortnightly" and by Mr. Richard Heath in the "Contemporary". The ex-Premier of France naturally puts the best possible complexion on the means by which he brought about the separation, and seeks to allay the misgivings for which he is responsible by assurances that the Republican party would be a traitor to its fundamental principles if it subjected the interior work of the Churches to restrictive and embarrassing conditions. All it has aimed at he says is to secure the right to freedom of conscience, and he is convinced that the separation of Church and State will happily end "a system of religious policy radically opposed to the constitutive principles of the Republic". Mr. Richard Heath's view is almost as frankly anti-Roman Catholic as M. Emile Combes'. He says of the separation of Church and State, than which "nothing more important ecclesiastically has occurred in Europe since the Reformation," that it was brought about by incompatibility, and he suggests that the Church has really very little to complain of. The promoters, he asserts with strange forgetfulness of the manner in which M. Combes and his colleagues acted, have done their best to assuage the profound irritation which "the notice to quit" has occasioned, and he fails to understand the note of defiance which the Church has sounded. These articles are just what we might expect to find in Radical and Independent reviews and may perhaps best be

judged by M. Tavernier's in the "Fortnightly". M. Tavernier explains that before the late Premier became the trusted agent of militant freethought he at one time wished to enrol himself in the service of the Church, and that the manner of his succession to M. Waldeck Rousseau was "a nice indication of the predominant rôle which has for a long while fallen to the share of the Radical group in France". M. Combes easily brought himself into line with the party at a time when it was on the look-out for events which might serve to aggravate religious strife and promote an entente with the Socialists. The Radical programme, M. Tavernier says, is a negative one, simply anti-religious and destructive. But good may nevertheless be the result. "Liberals, citizens hitherto indifferent to religious matters, Conservatives, Catholics, have again adopted the practice of acting in concert for the defence of their common interest, which they have now discovered as though it were a fact newly come into being. Religious liberty, and even the religious idea itself, have been replaced in the forefront of their programme of political action."

Professor A. V. Dicey in the "Contemporary" finds that fiscal reform has brought about the paralysis of the constitution: the only way of escape that he sees is for the Radicals once and for all to throw over Home Rule. "How is an honest elector to act who will surrender neither the Union nor Free Trade?" Sir Charles Follett in the "National" boldly asserts that if the business of the country is to be saved and the empire consolidated the people will have to pay import duties on food. Otherwise we shall be reduced to a nation of "mariners, bank clerks, dock carriers, loaders of trucks and commission agents". There need, says Sir Charles, "be no 'sacrifice' if the British elector will have a little courage now and refuse to be mendaciously placarded. But, if he selfishly acts as no subject of the Mikado would dream of acting, he will have, ere long, to bear a burden ten times heavier than any within the range of possibility under the proposals before the country. He may contemptuously cast adrift the empire handed down to him, but he cannot get rid of the debt incurred in building it up. He may be content to be only a citizen of a petty island in the North Sea, but if he is to be provided with food in his island, where agriculture has been destroyed by free imports, he must still keep up, alone and unaided, incomparably the greatest navy in the world". The views of one section of the empire on the question of preference are set forth at considerable length in the "Monthly" by Mr. J. S. Ewart, who says that Canada favours preference, and is prepared for co-operation always but for incorporation probably never. His conclusions are an echo of Sir Wilfrid Laurier's utterances.

"Blackwood's" contains two particularly notable articles: Mr. Hugh Clifford's picturesque and optimistic essay on "Time and Tobago" and some very apposite remarks on the attitude of the 120 pressmen at Portsmouth who did their best to make M. Witte ridiculous, but failed apparently to get much material for "copy" out of Baron Komura. From the time of the Napoleonic wars, the case against the press in all great crises, "Blackwood" declares, has been overwhelming and the action of the Japanese in refusing to allow their armies to be victimised by journalistic enterprise is properly commended. If the people will have news to which they have no right, let them know, says "Blackwood", what they pay in blood and money for "an ill-omened privilege". In the "Nineteenth Century" Sir William Garstin has an article on irrigation and some of the problems which had to be solved before the waters of the Nile could be stored up for future use. Captain G. S. C. Swinton in the "Nineteenth Century" and Mr. J. B. Firth in the "Fortnightly" both discuss the question of London traffic and the duties which the proposed Traffic Board would have to undertake. Mr. Basil Tozer in the "Monthly" is struck by the increasing popularity of the erotic novel; "Ouida" used to be thought dangerous for young people to read, but she has been left far behind, and Mr. Tozer reminds us that the most daring of the modern novels are the work of women. He may well ask where it will all end? Mrs. John Lane in the "Fortnightly" writes amusingly "On Taking Oneself Seriously": to take oneself so is mere vanity in her view, and she points to the great men whose names were forgotten even "as a summer breeze is forgotten".

For this Week's Books see page 350.

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